ENGLISH HISTORY

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ENGLISH HISTORY

(Political, Constitutional, and Social):

FROM

THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

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PREFACE.

In essaying to trace concisely the history of our own country from those half-obscured times when our race was in its cradle down to the present day, the authors have consistently aimed at summarising the more important facts in a style uncoloured by religious or political prejudice; much more attention has been devoted to the causes and effects than to the actual details of wars and insurrections, and an attempt made to touch lightly on their bearing upon the constitutional changes from which has evolved our present system of government.

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ENGLISH HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

BRITAIN BEFORE THE ROMAN CONQUEST.

The Inhabitants of the British Isles before the Roman Invasion, in B.C. 55, were a branch of the great **Celtic** stock and akin to the people of Gaul, whom the more civilized tribes of Britain resembled in manners and customs.

The Celts (or **Ancient Britons**) were divided into two branches: the **Gael** and the **Cymry**.

The descendants of the former now inhabit Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland, whilst those of the latter are to be found in Wales. **The earliest records of British commerce** date as far back as the eleventh century before the Christian era, when the **Phœnicians** came to trade with these islands for tin and lead. **Herodotus,** B.C. 480, is the earliest historian in whose writings we find mention of Britain, to which he alludes as **Cassiterides,** or the **Tin Islands,** in reference to the quantity of tin found on the Cornish coast and in the Scilly Islands. **Aristotle,** B.C. 340, refers to England and Scotland as **Albion** (or **White Island**), and to Ireland as **Ierne** (or **West**). **The earliest race** inhabiting these islands of whom we have any trace at all lived in the **Stone Age,** that is, a time when the use of metals was as yet unknown, and all the weapons and tools of this prehistoric people were made of **stone, bone or horn.** Many of these implements have been found deep underground in the barrows and burial-places of this bygone race, and these relics afford us all the information we can glean concerning them.

The Stone Age was succeeded by the **Bronze Age.** It seems probable that the people who heralded the Age of Bronze were a race of aliens who invaded and conquered the country, though nothing definite can be learned about them. These invaders

brought with them **the use of bronze**—an amalgamation of tin and copper, both of which metals were to be had in abundance in these islands. This epoch was followed by the **Iron Age**, when the use of this metal became customary. With this period commences our first actual knowledge of Britain.

Divisions of Britain.—The country, prior to the Roman Invasion, **was divided into forty-five independent states.** Each of these tribes or commonwealths bore a distinct name.

The more important of these were:

The Iceni (who dwelt in Norfolk, Suffolk, Huntingdon, and Cambridge),

The Brigantes (living in Yorkshire, Lancashire, Westmorland, Cumberland, and Durham), and

The Trinobantes (in Essex and Middlesex).

The Form of Government differed amongst these several states. In most cases each tribe was under **the patriarchal sway of one chief,** who was required to fulfil the duties of a military leader rather than those of a legislator. These various petty powers were frequently at hostility with one another; but these feuds were forgotten when a general danger threatened. In the presence of a common enemy, the several states elected one man under whom they united their forces and to whom they entrusted the whole management of the war.

The British Forces consisted of cavalry, infantry and charioteers, and were not without a certain rude military discipline. Their mode of warfare was skirmishing rather than fighting pitched battles, and their usual weapons were spears and shields. The skilful management of their war-chariots, the axles of which were armed with long scythes, compelled the admiration of the Romans, and has thus been described by **Cæsar**:

'They first drive to all parts with their chariots, and hurl their darts, and they frequently break the ranks of their enemy's infantry by the prancing of their steeds and the noise of the wheels. When they have pierced the ranks, they leap from their chariots and fight on foot. Meanwhile, the charioteers withdraw from the fight, but wait a little distance away in such a position that, in the event of their own warriors being worsted by the enemy, they may have the facilities of retreat to the chariots. Therefore in battle they combine the rapid action of cavalry with the firmness of infantry. To such a pitch of perfection have they attained, that they can stop their horses at full speed down a steep declivity, can check and turn them in a small compass, venture out upon the pole and stand with one foot on the yoke, and from thence (having hurled their dart) with wonderful swiftness can regain their place in the chariot.'

The Religion of the Ancient Britons was **Druidism**, and the priests were called **Druids** (derived from the Greek word

drus, meaning an oak). In the hands of these men was, practically speaking, vested **all jurisdiction, both civil and criminal,** as well as the power of making laws. The Druids were also the teachers of the young. They enjoyed many privileges, such as freedom from taxation and military service. Their fierce religion, which was observed with many mysterious rites, taught the worship of various gods, among which may be mentioned the **sun, fire,** the **serpent,** and the **oak.** The head of this order was the **Arch-Druid,** who was held in such veneration that he exercised what was actually a sovereign power in Britain.

The essential doctrines of this creed were:

1. The immortality of the soul and its transmigration through the bodies of the lower animals.
2. Belief in another world, wherefrom everything in this world had its origin.
3. The immolation of human victims (usually condemned criminals or prisoners of war) in honour of the gods.

The Druidical temples were built of stone, the remains of some of which are still existing. The most notable relic of this barbarous religion is that of **Stonehenge,** on Salisbury Plain.

Mode of Life of the Ancient Britons.— Their dwelling-places consisted for the most part of primitive huts built of wood and reeds. Their towns were merely clusters of these huts, usually situated in the midst of the forests, and protected by a trench and a rampart of tree-trunks. Civilization was in a more advanced state in the **South-eastern part of Britain,** owing to the facilities of communication with the Continent enjoyed by the Southern tribes. There **agriculture** to some extent was carried on, in addition to extensive **cattle-rearing**; and **woollen cloth** was manufactured, from which clothes of gay colour and elaborate design were made. Very different was the mode of life of the inhabitants of the **interior and the North.** These ruder tribes did not sow corn, but supported themselves by hunting and fishing, or gathering the wild fruits and nuts in the woods, and in the case of a few tribes in the extreme North by digging up roots. Their only covering was skins. They stained the exposed parts of their bodies with a blue dye obtained from woad, and sometimes they tattooed themselves by way of presenting a formidable appearance to their enemies in time of war.

Standard of Exchange.— Cæsar states in his Commentaries that the Britons did not use coined money. But for

purposes of barter they used rings and thin pieces of bronze and iron weighed by a certain standard.

Characteristics of the People.— Under the teaching of the Druids, whose religion, as we have seen, was attended by the most barbarous and bloodthirsty rites, it was not to be expected that the dispositions of the Britons would be otherwise than fierce and cruel. Especially towards their enemies were they merciless. Yet they were not without nobler qualities. They were courageous to a degree, and, generally speaking, honest and frank in their social dealings. Physically they were a stalwart, hardy people, skilful fishermen, and tireless in the chase. The women were well treated and held in respect.

State of the Country before the Roman Conquest.— Britain was covered with waste marsh-lands which the natives had made no effort to reclaim, and great tracts of forest-land where wolves and other wild animals roamed at will. Such were the people and such was the country that Julius Cæsar's invading legions came to conquer in B.C. 55.

THE ROMAN PERIOD:

Commenced B.C. 55, ended A.D. 426. Duration, 481 years.

CHAPTER II.

BRITAIN UNDER THE ROMANS.

First Roman Invasion. — At this time Rome was the mistress of the world. Her greatest rival, Carthage, she had vanquished a century ago. Greece had become her province. The Roman Empire extended from the Atlantic to the Euphrates, and northwards to the Danube—almost the whole of the known world—when, in B.C. 55, her great general, Julius Cæsar, made the first invasion of Britain. Julius Cæsar, who founded this vast empire, was the most powerful man in the Roman Republic. This position he owed to his military genius. He subdued Gaul and Spain, he settled the affairs of Greece, and defeated Pompey in the Civil War. Ultimately the great power he wielded was the cause of his downfall. He was suspected of designing to

turn the republic into a monarchy, with himself as sovereign, and he was murdered in the Senate House in B.C. 43.

Pretext for the Roman Invasion.— Whilst Cæsar was conquering Gaul, the fact that the Britons had helped the Gallic tribes in their struggle against the Roman legions afforded the general the pretext of invading this island of 'barbarians,' as the Romans called them. Cæsar embarked two legions, in all some 12,000 men, on board eighty transport vessels, and sailed from **Portus Itius** between Calais and Boulogne, and after a stout resistance from the Britons the invaders landed at **Deal**. The impetuous valour of the natives was futile in face of the trained military discipline of the Romans; the Britons retreated into the woods. A few days later, however, a storm did considerable damage to the invaders' ships; so, having obtained a few hostages as a token of submission, after a campaign of seventeen days Cæsar returned to Gaul.

Cæsar's Second Invasion, B.C. 54.— The Britons having failed to send the promised hostages, Cæsar sailed to these shores in the following year with 30,000 foot soldiers and 2,000 cavalry. He landed at Deal without encountering opposition. The Britons, however, had no intention of giving the Romans a bloodless victory. They renounced their international animosities in the face of this common foe, and **combined their forces** under the leadership of **Cassivelaunus**, chief of the tribe of the **Trinobantes**, whose state lay on the north side of the Thames. The aim of Cassivelaunus was to prevent the inland march of the Romans by cutting off the forage parties of the enemy, and by making unexpected skirmishing attacks from the woods, where the Britons had taken shelter, and thus harass the foe. Nevertheless, Cæsar crossed the Thames, captured and burnt the fortress of **Verulamium** (St. Albans), and after a severe conflict forced Cassivelaunus (who had been frustrated in an attempt to fire the Roman fleet) into submission, and deposed this British leader in favour of **Mandubratius**. After imposing a yearly tribute, Cæsar returned with his legions to **Gaul**.

The Effects of Cæsar's Invasions.—Julius Cæsar had by no means conquered Britain. In fact, according to the accounts handed down by many early writers, he did not achieve any important or decisive victory over the Britons. The importance of his invasion was that he brought this unexplored island into notice, and acted as **the pioneer of subsequent conquerors.** To Britain these invasions proved very beneficial, for their result was to **open a trade** between Rome and this country, and

increase the commerce of the latter with other trading nations on the Continent.

Britain between the Roman Invasions.—From B.C. 54 to A.D. 43 the Britons were left undisturbed by the Romans. This was owing to internal strife in the Republic, which brought about the establishment of a monarchy. Three times **Augustus**, the Roman Emperor, threatened to invade and subjugate this island. But he never fulfilled his threat. His successor, **Tiberius**, feared to imperil the power of the Roman Empire by extending her dominions, and left Britain unmolested. **Caligula** upon his succession, in A.D. 37, made great preparations for an invasion of these isles, and collected an army at Boulogne. But it is doubtful whether he even crossed the Channel. He returned to Rome with some shells, which he had ordered his soldiers to pick up on the seashore, and these trophies, he said, marked his 'victory over the ocean.'

The Third Invasion of the Romans did not take place until the reign of the Emperor **Claudius** (A.D. 43). **The pretext of the invasion** was furnished by a British chief, **Beric**, who had been driven out of his kingdom, and who went for help to the Roman Emperor. Claudius was not unwilling to add Britain to the rapidly-extending dominions of Rome, and he sent over four legions, consisting of **50,000 men**, under the command of **Aulus Plautius**. The Britons were defeated in sundry battles, but for nine years they gallantly maintained the contest, under the leadership of **Caractacus** or **Caradoc**. Under Aulus Plautius served **Vespasian** (who was afterwards Emperor), who captured the Isle of Wight. Caractacus was leading a forlorn hope. At last he was defeated in a great battle in Shropshire, on the banks of the Severn, by the successor of Plautius. Finally Caractacus was taken prisoner by the Romans through the treachery of his stepmother, the **Queen of the Brigantes**. He was led in chains to Rome; but the manly speech he made before the Emperor Claudius and his undaunted courage won the admiration of his captors, and Caractacus was released with the rest of the captives.

The Last Struggle of the Silures.—The loss of Caractacus did not daunt the courage of his tribe, the **Silures**, the people of South Wales, who attacked the Romans with desperate courage, and for a time held them at bay. **Paulinus Suetonius**, however, one of **Nero's** generals, totally defeated them in A.D. 59, and pursued the scattered army to the island of **Mona** (Anglesea). This island was the **stronghold of the Druids.**

Massacre of the Druids.—More than anyone else, the Druids had been the active means of keeping at white-heat the warlike spirit of the Britons, and had incited them to keep up the struggle to the last. Upon these martial priests **Suetonius** wreaked a terrible vengeance. He cut down the sacred groves, destroyed the altars, and burned the Druids in the sacrificial fires they had prepared for their enemies (A.D. 59).

Revolt of the Iceni.—Whilst Suetonius was in **Mona**, the **Iceni** flew to arms under **Queen Boadicea.** Boadicea was the widow of the King of the **Iceni**, who had been **an ally of the Romans.** On his death he had left half his dominions to the Emperor, hoping that thereby his two daughters would be allowed to remain in possession of the other half. But on his death the **Roman procurator** immediately seized the whole, and, on the remonstrance of Boadicea, subjected her to outrages so inhuman as to act as the firebrand of revolt. The Iceni took to arms. Other tribes joined them. Soon Boadicea was in command of forces that numbered 230,000 strong; and leading her men against the Roman settlements, she gained several victories, and put the garrisons of **Camulodonum** (Colchester) and **London** to the sword—70,000 Romans fell before her avenging host. But **Suetonius** hastened back from the north to oppose the victorious army, and defeated Boadicea, with a slaughter of 80,000 Britons, and the capture of numberless prisoners. To avoid the fate of falling into the hands of her country's enemies, **Boadicea** put an end to her life by poison (A.D. 61).

The Final Conquest of Britain was accomplished by **Cnæus Julius Agricola**, who governed the island for seven years (A.D. 78 to A.D. 85), during the reigns of the Emperors **Vespasian, Titus,** and **Domitian.** Within three years Agricola subjugated the whole country south of the **Tyne** and **Solway Firth.** He built a line of forts between the **Firths of Forth and Clyde** (A.D. 81). Agricola afterwards invaded **Caledonia,** and penetrated to the foot of the **Grampian Hills,** where he utterly defeated the chief **Galgacus** with his army of **30,000 Caledonians.** Agricola's campaigns are narrated by his son-in-law, **Tacitus, the historian.** In addition to his military prowess, Agricola was an **able statesman.** He made wise laws; the sternness of justice he tempered with humanity, and encouraged the spread of Western civilization, and the cultivation of 'the arts of peace.' He was recalled to Rome by Domitian in A.D. 85. For thirty years after his time Britain was more or less peaceful.

Roman Fortifications.—To secure the Britons from the freebooting expeditions of the **Caledonians** on their crops and herds, the Emperor **Hadrian** constructed an **earthen rampart**, which extended from the **Solway Firth** to the **Tyne** (A.D. 121). This was afterwards rebuilt of stone by the Emperor **Severus** (A.D. 210). Also under the direction of the Emperor **Antoninus**, the Governor, in A.D. 139, routed the Caledonians and restored the rampart of Agricola between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, calling it the **Wall of Antoninus.** The Caledonians continuing to give the Romans much trouble, the Emperor Severus came to Britain in A.D. 208. He advanced north and subdued the Caledonians, though not without the loss of 50,000 of his men. Severus then built a **wall of stone** from **Carlisle to Newcastle.** Shortly after he died at York. For about **seventy years** after the death of Severus, Britain appears to have enjoyed comparative peace.

The Saxon Pirates.—Then a new enemy infested these coasts. About A.D. 288 the **Saxon and Scandinavian Pirates** began to harass the Eastern and Southern shores. The Roman Emperor **Diocletian** appointed **Carausius** 'Count of the Saxon Shore' (**comes littoris Saxonici**), or governor of the coast from the **Wash** to **Dorsetshire.**

Usurpation of Carausius.—A powerful fleet was sent out against these pirates, under the command of Carausius. But he allied himself with the buccaneers, set the Emperor at defiance, and **obtained the supreme power** in Britain and its seas for almost seven years, during which time **Britain cast off its dependence on Rome.** A second usurper was **Allectus**, a Briton, the minister of Carausius, who, in A.D. 293, murdered the latter at York, and succeeded him. This usurper ruled three years, but he was defeated and slain by a Roman army under the command of **Constantius**, the new Roman Emperor (A.D. 296).

Britain again restored to Roman Rule.—Constantius married a British lady, named **Helena**, and held the Roman court at **Eboracum** (York). On his death his son **Constantine** was proclaimed the Emperor (A.D. 306). Constantine was the **first Christian Emperor.** Though Christianity had been introduced long before (possibly before the end of the first century) into these islands, its converts had previously been liable to persecution. Its spread now became very rapid. Constantine **soon removed his court** to **Constantinople**, which became the **capital of the Roman Empire.**

The Picts and Scots.—Britain was again troubled by the people of Caledonia. Caledonia was now inhabited by a savage race known as the **Scots**, who came over from Ireland in the beginning of the fourth century and defeated the Caledonians. The **Picts** were the original Britons, living beyond the Roman frontier. They derived their name from the Latin word **pictus**, or 'painted.' The Picts and Scots made many incursions upon their neighbours, and on one occasion made a plundering foray as far south as London. They were at last driven back by **Theodosius** over the frontier. But the North remained in a constant state of disturbance owing to these wild tribes.

Decline of the Roman Empire.—The powerful empire of Rome was fast waning. Its power had been shaken by **intestine strife** and **foreign foes**. **The Goths** (under the famous **Alaric**), the **Vandals**, and other invaders from the central parts of Europe were arming against her. Rome herself even was threatened by these attacks. The Roman legions were all insufficient to protect the vast limits of the doomed empire, and in A.D. 410 the **Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain**, and **Honorius**, the Emperor, relinquished all claims to the allegiance of the Britons. But before this several of the governors in Britain, when they saw her empire tottering, had thrown off the Roman yoke. The most powerful of these was **Maximus**, who had distinguished himself when fighting against the inroads of the Picts and Scots. Maximus made himself **Emperor of Britain** A.D. 382, and **Honorius** had to accept the situation. A scheming and ambitious man, Maximus carried away the flower of the British army to the Continent, and aimed at making himself Emperor of the western half of the Roman Empire. He was defeated at **Aquileia**, and put to death (A.D. 388). Another scheme of Maximus had been to establish a **colony** in Brittany. Consequently Britain, whose sons had been enervated by the Roman rule (for the Romans had done all the fighting), was left at the mercy of the Picts and Scots. A Roman general called **Stilicho**, sent by Honorius, gave the country temporary peace (A.D. 395), and again in A.D. 418 help was urgently asked for and received from the Roman Emperor. The legions under **Maximian** drove back these marauders from the North to their own fastnesses, repaired the walls built by Hadrian and Severus, and drilled the Britons in the use of arms. This done, the Romans finally vacated the island (A.D. 426). With this event the **Roman Dominion in Britain ended.**

Roman Influences on Britain.—It is only natural that

the Roman occupation of Britain, which lasted four centuries, should leave very marked results upon the country and its people. The Romans brought with them **strong civilizing influences**, under which the Britons learned to abandon their old savage and primitive habits. This change from rude barbaric customs to the ways of civilization was noticeable in **the homes of the people.** The Romans on the first invasion found the natives dwelling in huts of reeds; when the Romans left Britain, in A.D. 426, there were towns built of stone, in which were buildings that could lay claim to architectural beauty. **The Romans taught the Britons to know their own powers—to realize the extent of their great resources.** The examples of Roman skill in engineering were very beneficial to the spread of civilization. Good roads were made over the marsh-lands and through the forests. **Four great highways** traversed the country, parts of which are still in use.

Watling Street, through London and Chester, etc. Beginning in Kent and ending at Caernarvon.
Foss Way, between Cornwall and Lincoln.
Rikenild Street, from Newcastle, through York, Derby, and Birmingham, to South Wales.
Hermin Street, from South Wales to Southampton.

These increased facilities of communication **helped to develop internal trade.** Another cause beneficial to commerce, as their civilization and intercourse with other countries increased, was that the Britons found **new markets opened to their exports**, which consisted of corn, pottery, iron, tin, lead, cattle, horses, dogs, etc. The Romans also introduced the use of **coined money.**

Government of Britain under the Romans.—Each province was under the charge of a **governor**; over all the provinces was one **Vicarius**, or deputy, who was responsible to the Prefect of Gaul. The Romans were good, if stern, rulers, and made wise and just laws. **Civil affairs** were regulated by five **magistrates**, two **consulares**, and three **presidents.** There were usually 20,000 soldiers kept in the island, and these were under the command of three officers—the **Count of Britain**, the **Duke of Britain** and the **Count of the Saxon Shore.**

The Romans divided Britain into six provinces:

Britannia Prima. — The country south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel.
Britannia Secunda.—Wales.
Flavia Cæsariensis. — From the Thames to the Mersey and the Humber.
Maxima Cæsariensis.—From the Humber to the Wall of Hadrian, on the Tyne.

Valentia.—From the Wall of Hadrian to that of Antoninus.
Vespasiana.—North of the Wall of Antoninus.

The Introduction of Christianity.—We have no authentic records respecting the introduction of Christianity. By some it is believed to have been introduced into Britain by **Roman soldiers** during the first century; others say it was brought by **traders from the East.** During the rule of the Romans the **Bible was translated into the native language.** On the accession of **Constantine the Great,** A.D. 306, Christianity became the religion of the Empire. Its spread was rapid; but owing to the absence of education it was not until later that Christianity took a firm hold on the people.

Summary of Events:

First Roman Invasion (under Julius Cæsar)	B.C.	55
Second Roman Invasion	,,	54
Third Roman Invasion (under Claudius)	A.D.	43
Julius Agricola in Britain	,,	78
Agricola's Wall built	,,	81
Hadrian's Wall built	,,	120
Wall of Antoninus	,,	139
Usurpation of Carausius	,,	286
Accession of Constantine	,,	306
Honorius frees Britain from its allegiance to Rome	,,	410
The Romans, under Maximian, return to help Britain against the Picts and Scots	,,	418
The Romans vacate Britain	,,	426

THE SAXON PERIOD:

Commenced A.D. 449, ended A.D. 1066. Duration, 617 years.

CHAPTER III.

EARLY SAXON KINGS.

Britain's New Allies.— The final withdrawal of the Romans left the Britons at the mercy of their more warlike neighbours, the Picts and Scots, who began to regard this country as their lawful prey. So great was the havoc caused by these marauders that, in A.D. 446, the Britons applied once more for help to Rome, sending a letter, wherein they represented their helpless and hapless state to the **Prefect of Gaul**:—'The barbarians drive us to the sea, and the sea casts

us back into the arms of the barbarians; thus death lies in wai for us on either hand.' This piteous appeal was fruitless Rome herself was in desperate straits; her empire was being torn by foes on every side; she had neither the power nor the desire to help Britain. In this extremity the Britons had recourse to the expedient of hiring foreign tribes to come to their assistance. Those whom they invited to become their allies were **the forefathers of the English of to-day.**

The British chief, **Vortigern**, in desperation applied for aid to **Hengist** and **Horsa**, two **Saxon Vikings**, or pirates. They accepted the invitation and came to Britain with about **sixteen hundred** of their followers. They landed at **Thanet**, in Kent in A.D. **449.**

The Anglo-Saxons were a hardy and daring race, inhabiting the sea-board of the Baltic and the North Sea, who had made themselves the terror of the surrounding nations. They were divided into **three distinct tribes**:

1. **The Jutes**, inhabiting the Peninsula of Jutland.
2. **The Angles**, inhabiting the Duchy of Schleswig.
3. **The Saxons**, including the **Frisians**, the people of the country between the shores of the Baltic and Friesland.

The Saxons, the collective name by which these three families were known, were a people devoted to seafaring enterprise. Their wild Scandinavian religion, which taught the worship of Odin and other gods, made them cruel, bold, and fearless of death, for they believed that to fall in battle opened to them the gates of **Valhalla**, the 'Hall of Odin, the God of War,' or **the paradise of slain heroes.** Their ruling passion was the desire of glory in battle. Such were the men who came to the help of the Britons, to repel the Northern invaders. Together with the British forces, the Saxons marched boldly against the Picts and Scots, and defeated them in a battle at **Stamford** (in Lincolnshire), A.D. 449.

The Saxons conquer the Britons.—But the Britons then found to their dismay that they could not get rid of their allies. Large numbers of the Saxons came over to Britain with the intention of making it their home, and eventually turned their arms against the people they had been engaged to protect. They joined forces with the Picts and Scots, and, despite the British struggle for independence, swept like a flood over the country. The Britons fled to the **West** of the island, where they found refuge, with the exception of those who escaped to **Brittany.** Within eight years of his arrival in this country **Hengist declared himself King**, and founded **the first Saxon**

kingdom in Kent. So many of Hengist's countrymen had invaded Britain that soon almost all the country was under Saxon sway, and split up into various kingdoms under different chiefs. There were in all **Six Saxon Invasions**:

1. The Invasion of **Hengist** and **Horsa** with sixteen hundred men, A.D. 449.
2. That of five thousand men in seventeen vessels, A.D. 455.
3. Another tribe, under the leadership of **Ella** and his three sons, A.D. 477.
4. A tribe under **Cerdic** and his son Cynric, A.D. 495.
5. A tribe of Saxons, A.D. 527.
6. A body of Angles, under the leadership of **Uffa**, A.D. 527.

The so-called Saxon Heptarchy.—Within a period of little more than a century the Saxons were firmly established in Britain; the land was divided into seven distinct kingdoms, each governed by its respective founder (or conqueror) and his descendants. These Anglo-Saxon kingdoms are often called the **Saxon Heptarchy** (from their number being sometimes seven):

1. **Kent**, founded by the Jutes under **Hengist**, A.D. 457, comprehended the county of Kent. The capital was **Canterbury.**
2. **Sussex**, founded by a Saxon tribe under **Ella**, A.D. 490, contained Sussex and Surrey; the capital, **Chichester.**
3. **Wessex**, founded by **Cerdic**, A.D. 519, consisted of Berks, Southampton, Wilts, Somerset, Dorset, Devon, and part of Cornwall; the capital, **Winchester.**
4. **Essex**, founded by Saxons under **Ercenwin**, A.D. 527, extended over Essex, Middlesex, and part of Herts; capital, **London.**
5. **Northumbria**, founded by Angles under **Ida**, A.D. 547, extended from the north of the Humber to the Forth; capital, **York.** This kingdom was at first divided into two: (1) **Bernicia.** (2) **Deira.**
6. **East Anglia**, founded by Angles under **Uffa**, A.D. 575, comprised Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, and the Isle of Ely; capital, **Dumvich.**
7. **Mercia**, founded by **Crida**, A.D. 582, contained Chester, Hereford, Gloucester, Stafford, Worcester, Oxford, Shropshire, Warwick, Derby, Leicester, Bucks, Northampton, Nottingham, Lincoln, Bedford, Rutland, Huntingdon, and part of Herts; capital, **Leicester.**

Government of the Anglo-Saxons.—Each of these divisions had its own prince, yet they were not entirely dependent states, for one man had to some extent power over all the others. He was styled **Bretwalda**, or Supreme Lord. Authorities are conflicting as to the exact powers possessed by this man; but the Bretwalda was doubtless a petty prince who obtained the sovereign rule for the time being by sheer force of superior power. There were seven **Bretwaldas** between A.D. 490 and 570.

Civil War in Saxon Britain.—These seven Saxon king-

doms, which were established in Britain about the end of the sixth century, did not long continue independent. When not engaged in fighting with the **Welsh** (that is, the **Britons** who had fled to Wales), they waged constant war amongst themselves, and the number of kingdoms became gradually less. These wars were commenced by **Ethelbert**, the fourth successor of **Hengist**, in A.D. 568. From this time continual changes were wrought in the political state of the island. No less than seventeen Saxon princes hurled each other from the throne. For a long time the struggle for the supremacy was continued between **Wessex** and **Mercia**. Finally, in A.D. 823, **Egbert**, King of Wessex, defeated the Mercians at **Ellandune**, in Wiltshire, and four years later Mercia submitted to Wessex. Thus, in A.D. 827, Egbert, whilst contenting himself with the title of **King of the West Saxons**, became in reality **King of Angle-land**, that is to say, England.

Early Saxon Kings:

Egbert	A.D. 827	**Edmund I.**	A.D. 940
Ethelwolf	„ 836	**Edred**	„ 946
Ethelbald	„ 858	**Edwy**	„ 955
Ethelbert	„ 860	**Edgar**	„ 958
Ethelred I.	„ 866	**Edward the Martyr**	„ 975
Alfred	„ 871	**Ethelred II. the Unready**	„ 979
Edward the Elder...	„ 901	**Edmund II.**	„ 1016
Athelstan	„ 925		

Egbert (sole monarch, A.D. 827-836) was a descendant of **Cerdic**. He succeeded to the throne of Wessex in A.D. 800. He defeated the **Britons** in several battles, and subjugated Cornwall (A.D. 809). The three great principalities into which the seven British kingdoms had merged were **Mercia, Northumbria**, and **Wessex**. Egbert annexed **Mercia**, and, in A.D. 827, obtained the submission of the King of **Northumbria**. Thus, in A.D. 827, the **Saxon Heptarchy was dissolved and succeeded by a monarchy, under one sovereign.** Egbert, however, did not assume the title 'King of England,' which was first adopted by **Edward the Elder**, but merely styled himself 'King of the West Saxons.' Scarcely was Egbert's supremacy established, when the kingdom was menaced by the invasion of a new enemy, the **Danes**, or Norsemen. These people were of the same race as the Saxons; but whereas the latter had become Christians, the invaders still retained the fierce Scandinavian religion, the worship of Odin. They were notorious for their piratical habits, and were the scourges of the surrounding seas. During the reign of Egbert these Norsemen disembarked in Dorsetshire in A.D. 833, and **allied themselves with the Britons of Cornwall.** In A.D. 835 Egbert repulsed the invaders with great slaughter at **Hengesdown**

in Cornwall. In the following year Egbert died, and was succeeded by his son.

Ethelwolf (A.D. 836-858).—In this reign the **Danes**, whose repulse had been but temporary, made repeated inroads on English shores, sweeping away the goods and cattle from undefended parts of the coast. They established themselves in the Isles of Thanet and Sheppey, from whence they carried on incessant ravages. They sailed up the Thames and Medway, and plundered London and Canterbury (A.D. 838). But in A.D. 851 they were completely defeated at **Ockley**, in Surrey. Ethelwolf was more fitted for a monastic life than the throne. His first act was to share his dominions with his son **Athelstan**, giving him the kingdoms of Essex, Kent, and Sussex. Athelstan died during his father's lifetime. Ethelwolf made a pilgrimage to Rome, accompanied by his son **Alfred**, afterwards King. On his return he married a second wife, **Judith**, daughter of **Charles the Bald.** During his absence, his second son, **Ethelbald**, attempted to usurp the throne, and succeeded in forcing his father to resign to him the western districts. Ethelwolf granted to the clergy **a perpetual right to tithes**, and exempted them from all services and imposts. He died in A.D. 858.

Ethelbald (A.D. 857-860).—This prince excited popular odium by marrying his stepmother, **Judith**. By the advice of the Bishop of Winchester, **Swithun**, they were separated ; and Judith, returning to the Court of France, married **Baldwin**, from whom **Matilda**, wife of **William I.**, was descended. Nothing eventful happened during this reign. Ethelbald died in A.D. 860, and was succeeded by his brother.

Ethelbert (A.D. 860-866).—This brief reign is chiefly remarkable for the continuous struggles with the Danes, who devastated Kent and burned the King's capital, Winchester.

Ethelred I. (A.D. 866-871) succeeded his brother. In the first year of his reign the most formidable invasion by the Danes took place. In the preceding year a famous Danish Viking, **Ragnar Lodbrog**, had been captured in Northumbria and barbarously murdered. Lodbrog's sons brought over a vast army, conquered Northumbria and East Anglia, ravaged Lincoln and Nottingham, where they burned the churches and monasteries, putting the people to the sword, and aimed at the conquest of the whole of England. The Saxons opposed the invaders in battle after battle, under the leadership of Ethelred and his brother, Alfred. The Saxons gained a great victory at

Ashdown, in Berkshire; but this success was followed by two severe defeats. The latter of these was incurred at **Merton**, in Surrey, in A.D. 871, where Ethelred received a fatal wound.

Alfred the Great (A.D. 871-901).—In the year in which Alfred succeeded his brother nine pitched battles were fought on Wessex territory with the Danes. Alfred was but twenty-two years of age when he ascended the throne, and during the first eight months of his reign the Danes gave him no peace. The invaders concluded a treaty with Alfred after an indecisive battle fought at **Wilton**, in A.D. 872, and the Norsemen retired north of Wessex; and though for some years they left Wessex unmolested, they still retained their supremacy over the other parts of the country. In A.D. 878 the Danes renewed their ravages. Advancing upon Wessex under **Guthrum**, they captured **Chippenham**, Alfred's residence on the Avon. The King fled in disguise to **Athelney**, an island formed by two rivers, among the marshes of Somersetshire. He took refuge in the cottage of a swineherd, where, according to the old chroniclers, the wife of his host, not knowing her visitor's rank, on one occasion roundly abused Alfred for allowing some cakes to burn, which were baking on the hearth. During the king's retirement his nobles were making preparations for a renewal of the conflict. A story runs that Alfred, disguising himself as a minstrel, penetrated the enemy's camp, learnt their plans, and, having summoned his followers, made a sudden attack on the Danes at **Ethandune** in Wiltshire, and forced them to surrender (A.D. 878). The **Peace of Wedmore** was the result of this victory, by the terms of which the Danish Prince Guthrum and thirty of his nobles agreed to be baptized in the Christian faith. A portion of the country was allotted to the Danes, as vassals of Alfred. This land given over to the invaders comprised the Kingdom of **East Anglia** and a large part of **Mercia**, and was called **Danelagh**. The country enjoyed peace until A.D. 893, when **Hastings the Dane** invaded England with a fleet of 250 ships. He landed near Romney Marsh, and encamped. For three years Hastings kept Alfred engaged in constant warfare in the south; but finally the King defeated the invader and drove him out of the country. For the rest of Alfred's reign the country was at peace.

Alfred as a Man of Peace.—His Characteristics.—Although justly renowned in war, Alfred was essentially a lover of peace. His wars were forced upon him as a matter of self-defence. His victories were always marked by mercy towards the vanquished. One of Alfred's most striking characteristics

was his love of learning. Eight hours of every peaceful day of his life were divided between study and devotion. His early education had been much neglected, but the recital of some Saxon poems aroused him, and he applied himself with such diligence and success to study that he became the most learned man of his age. He wrote and translated many books, and has been styled, not without justice, the Father of English Literature.

Alfred's Government.—It was probably in Alfred's time that England was divided into **counties, hundreds,** and **tithings,** though some historians place this division at an earlier date. **Trial by Jury** is said to have been instituted by Alfred, and it is certain that he improved the condition of the people by issuing a **Code of Laws,** drawn from the best laws of his predecessors, which, though now lost, served long as the basis of English jurisprudence, and is generally deemed the origin of what is now denominated the Common Law. This code comprised :

1. Judicial laws of the Old Testament.
2. Laws enacted by Ina, King of Wessex.
3. Statutes ordained by Offa, King of Mercia.
4. Laws framed by himself.

Crime became rare in England, owing to Alfred's wise and just administration.

Alfred instituted **three judicial assemblies :**

1. **A Cabinet Council.**
2. **A Council of Nobles,** or Privy Council.
3. **A Witenagemot,** or Parliament, consisting of two archbishops, bishops, earls, viscounts, and sheriffs. This was summoned by the King on a political emergency.

Other National Benefits.—Alfred established the **English Navy,** consisting of 120 ships, better built and equipped than even those of the Danes. He established a **regular militia ;** he rebuilt **London** and **Shaftesbury,** and fortified his dominions with strong castles, both inland and on the coast, wherever danger was most to be apprehended. The spread of **learning** he encouraged both by founding **schools** and inviting men of learning to his court ; and under his fostering care **commerce** and **manufacturing industries** made rapid strides. With a well-won reputation Alfred the Great died in A.D. 901. He was succeeded by his son,

Edward the Elder (A.D. 901-925).—**Edward's** claim to the crown was disputed by **Ethelwald,** the son of Alfred's elder brother, **Ethelred,** who allied himself with the Danes. But in a

battle that took place near **Bury** Ethelwald was slain, and East Anglia, Mercia, and Essex were won back from the Danes. The Anglican Danes at this time occupied the five towns of Nottingham, Derby, Leicester, Stamford, and Lincoln. After five years' fighting, Edward and his sister **Elfrida**, who ruled Mercia, subdued them. In addition to his conquest over the Danes, **Edward** compelled **Constantine** III., King of **Scotland**, to do him vassal-homage (A.D. 922), and in A.D. 921 he received the submission of **Wales**. Thus Edward became overlord of the whole of Britain. He was the first to assume the title **King of England** (Rex Anglorum). In his military qualities Edward equalled his father, though inferior in point of learning. Edward had three wives and twelve children, but was succeeded by an illegitimate son, **Athelstan**.

Athelstan (A.D. 925-940).—A conspiracy formed to dethrone Athelstan, the leading spirit of which was a powerful noble named **Alfred**, was quickly suppressed. In A.D. 937, a King of Denmark appeared with a great fleet in the Humber, and united his forces with the Northumbrian Danes, who were aided by the Welsh and Scots, with the intention of throwing off Athelstan's supremacy. They were defeated in a great battle at **Brunanburgh**, in Lincolnshire. **Constantine**, King of Scotland, was compelled to sue for peace; upon the **Welsh** was imposed a heavy annual tribute, and **Northumbria** was wrested from the Danes. The supremacy of Athelstan was now undisputed, and he assumed the title of 'King of all Britain.' Athelstan was a wise legislator; he encouraged the spread of religion by commanding that an **Anglo-Saxon** version of the Bible should be placed in every church; he interested himself in the growth of commerce, and granted the title of **Thane** to every merchant who made three voyages in his own ship, as an encouragement to commercial enterprises. Athelstan formed the **first political alliance with France**, whose sovereign, **Louis** IV., had received his protection. This King died at Gloucester, after a reign of nearly sixteen years, and was succeeded by his brother **Edmund** (A.D. 940), who was then only eighteen years of age.

Edmund the Magnificent (A.D. 940-946).—The chief claims of this King upon our attention spring from his decisive action in driving the Danes out of the **Five Burghs** (Derby, Leicester, Nottingham, Stamford, and Lincoln), which these Norsemen had made their own during Alfred's reign. This territory was then split up into shires. Edmund conquered the Welsh

of Strathclyde, the district between the Derwent and the Firth of Clyde, and conferred a great part of it on **Malcolm**, the King of the Scots, who in return undertook to help Edmund in time of war. In the following year Edmund was assassinated. As his two sons, **Edwy** and **Edgar**, were too young to govern, the Witan elected his brother **Edred** as successor.

Edred (A.D. 946-955).—Edred's reign was an unimportant one, save in that it saw the rise of the great ecclesiastical statesman, **Dunstan**, Abbot of Glastonbury, who gained a complete ascendency over the King. Edred was succeeded by his nephew **Edwy**.

Edwy (A.D. 955-958).—Edwy was but sixteen at the time of his accession. By his marriage with his cousin **Elgiva**, Edwy excited the grave displeasure of Dunstan, who, overestimating the security of his position, placed a public affront upon the youthful King on the day of his coronation. In consequence Dunstan found himself an exile. At the instigation of the banished prelate, the Danes of Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia revolted and proclaimed **Edgar** King. Other misfortunes overtook the hapless Edwy: his wife was murdered by the command of **Odo**, the Archbishop of Canterbury; he himself was placed under the ban of excommunication. In the midst of this 'sea of troubles' Edwy died.

Edgar (A.D. 958-978).—Though Edgar was nominally King, it was Dunstan's hand that really guided the ship of state. In all the wise legislation, in all the reforms that add lustre to Edgar's reign, Dunstan was the moving spirit. This archbishop was the first legislator to govern England without a sword in his hand, and in this reign the Anglo-Saxon power reached its greatest height. This power had been gradually getting greater since the days of Alfred. Bit by bit the Danes in the north had come to acknowledge the Saxon King's sway; and Dunstan adopted a policy towards them which was exactly the reverse of that of his predecessors. His aim was to make the Danes and the English live at peace with each other, subject to the same supreme power. The success that attended his efforts was not a little owing to the political tolerance with which he suffered the Danes to retain their own laws and customs. Dunstan was a zealous reformer of ecclesiastical abuses; he introduced a necessary, if stern, discipline into monastic life, and as far as possible removed the 'black sheep' from the body of the monks. Like Alfred, Dunstan fostered the growth of education, and made strong efforts to bring into the country capable schoolmasters,

The reign of Edgar was one of peace; no foreign foe invaded his kingdom, and no civil wars broke out. At the age of thirty-three Edgar died. His son **Edward** succeeded.

Edward the Martyr (A.D. 975-979).—Edward's father had married twice, and **Elfrida**, the second wife, designed to place her own son on the throne. At first her plans were baffled, as Dunstan exerted all his power in favour of Edgar's eldest son; but in A.D. 879, by an act of treachery on the part of this cruel step-mother, Edward was murdered, and his step-brother **Ethelred** succeeded him.

Ethelred the Purposeless (A.D. 979-1016).—The tide of Anglo-Saxon prosperity, which had reached its high-water mark under Dunstan's statesmanship, was now fast ebbing. Dunstan died; and Ethelred, whose weak, irresolute nature essentially stood in need of wise counsellors, had no single trustworthy minister to correct his innumerable errors of judgment. The opportunity offered by this spiritless rule was seized upon by invaders. In 981 the Danes renewed their ravages, under **Sweyn** of Denmark and Olaf of Norway. After dallying with the danger, Ethelred weakly decided to buy the invaders off. He offered the Danes large sums of money on the condition of their departure from England; the offer was accepted. To raise the money, a tax was levied called **Danegelt**. This tax consisted of a shilling on every hide of land, and was the first land-tax in England. These payments had merely the effect of attracting other invaders. Every fresh grant of Danegelt whetted the appetites of the Danes for more. Out of a spirit of retaliation, the king committed a dastard's action: he caused a general massacre of all the Danes whose homes were in England. This deed was almost immediately followed by the invasion of a Danish army, under Sweyn, bent on a mission of vengeance. Ethelred fled to Normandy, and Sweyn, who had made himself master of both North and South, became acknowledged King of England. Sweyn died shortly afterwards, leaving the kingdom to his son **Canute**. The English, however, recalled Ethelred, and Canute had to leave England; but he returned the following year, and in the midst of the Dane's victorious progress Ethelred died.

Edmund Ironside (A.D. 1016).—Immediately the **Witan** elected his son **Edmund** as successor to Ethelred. Edmund was a very different man to his father; he refused to stand tamely by and see **Canute** wrest from him the throne of his ancestors. Battle after battle he fought with the Danes; but he was

defeated, owing to the treachery of his brother-in-law **Edric**. At last the English and the Danes agreed, in a conference at **Olney**, to divide the kingdom. **Canute** was to rule the northern provinces; **Edmund** was to hold the country south of the Thames, together with East Anglia, Essex, and London. A month afterwards Edmund was assassinated, and the whole realm fell under Canute's sway. Thus, in A.D. 1016, the **Danish Rule** began.

CHAPTER IV.

THE DANISH KINGS.

Canute (or **Knut**)	A.D. 1016.
Harold I.	A.D. 1035.
Hardicanute	A.D. 1040.

Canute (A.D. 1016-1035).—Although Edmund Ironsides had two sons, their claims were waived in favour of Canute, who was elected King by the vote of the **Witan**. Canute was in some respects an unscrupulous man, but he was a good ruler, and he showed his statesmanship in his treatment of the Saxons, who scarcely realised that they were a conquered people. He allowed them to keep their own laws and customs, and made no distinction between the English and the Danes. Upon his accession Canute embraced Christianity, and did much to further its cause by building churches and endowing monasteries. England he divided into four earldoms: Wessex, Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria. Wessex he ruled personally; over the other divisions he placed viceroys or earls. Amongst these earls was **Godwin**, who practically became the King's prime minister. Canute's own younger days had been wild, and marred by excesses, but his rule of England shows him to have been a man of peace, and a staunch supporter of order. To establish good feeling between the English and the Danes, he married the widow of Ethelred; and to make himself more popular with his subjects, he dismissed the greater part of his Danish soldiers. In A.D. 1027 Canute subdued the kingdom of Norway, and drove **Olaus**, the king, into exile. In A.D. 1031 he reduced Malcolm, King of Scots, to a state of vassalage. In A.D. 1035 Canute died.

Harold Harefoot (A.D. 1035-1040).—Canute left three sons. **Sweyn** and **Harold** were the sons of his first marriage; **Hardi-**

canute was the son of his second wife, **Emma**. England, which had been so firmly united under Canute's iron rule, was now threatened with disruption. Sweyn was the King of Norway; his two brothers claimed the English throne. The Danes supported the pretensions of Harold; the English and Earl Godwin favoured the claims of Hardicanute. To prevent civil war, the council of the **Witan** suggested a compromise, which was nominally adopted: England was to be divided between the two claimants, Harold receiving the country north of the Thames, the rest falling under the sway of Hardicanute. Hardicanute, however, failed to come over from Denmark; his supporters in Wessex tired of the thankless task of waiting for a king who would not trouble to come, and Harold became, virtually, sole King of Britain. During the dispute, two other claimants had endeavoured to enforce their claims. These were the sons of Ethelred II., **Edward** and **Alfred**. They lacked supporters, however; the former was driven back to Normandy, and the latter, with his followers, fell under the daggers of hired assassins. Harold's reign was brief and uneventful. He died in A.D. 1040.

Hardicanute (A.D. 1040-1042).—Hardicanute was then proclaimed King by the Witan. He proved cruel and despotic. He imposed heavy taxes on the people, reviving that of **Danegelt**. The people of Worcester refused to pay this tax, which amounted to twelve pence on every hide of land. In revenge the King burnt the city. Many other acts of oppression are recorded. Hardicanute died suddenly during a drunken revel in A.D. 1042. With his death **the Danish dynasty in England came to an end.**

CHAPTER V.

THE SAXON LINE RESTORED.

Edward III. (son of Ethelred)	...	...	A.D. 1042.
Harold II. (son of Earl Godwin)	...	...	A.D. 1066.

Edward the Confessor (A.D. 1042-1066).—With the death of Hardicanute a strong spirit of independence was kindled among the Saxons. The misrule of Harold and Hardicanute had taught them a bitter lesson. Godwin had but to raise the standard, and a vast army of patriots flocked to his side. The Danes were

driven from each stronghold and town in rapid succession. At last the naturalized invaders abandoned the battle of their fallen cause, and left the English shores. **The Saxon line of Kings was restored** in the person of **Edward**, the son of **Ethelred**, whom, on the advice of Godwin, the Witanagemot invited from Normandy to ascend the throne. Edward was crowned amid great public rejoicing at Winchester, in A.D. 1042 Edward was not a wise ruler. His long residence abroad had made him a Norman at heart; his sympathies were less with the English than with the foreign favourites who came over with him, and who soon filled the highest places at his court. This conduct naturally alienated the good-will of his English subjects. Godwin especially watched with jealous eye the advancement of these Norman favourites. Circumstances at last brought the King and this powerful nobleman into collision, A.D. 1051. Godwin was ordered to punish the men of Dover, who, provoked by the insolence of **Eustace**, Count of Boulogne, had attacked some of his Norman retainers. Godwin refused to comply with the royal mandate, and the dispute was referred to the decision of the Witanagemot. Godwin and his sons were banished, and fled to Flanders. The following year, however, saw his return with a large army, and Edward was glad to accept conditions of peace, which insisted on the dismissal of the Norman favourites. Godwin then became the most powerful man in the kingdom. Shortly before his death the childless Edward made a will, appointing his mother's nephew, **William of Normandy**, his successor. Edward died in A.D. 1066. Edward was a man more fitted for the cloister than the throne; but one of his reforms is worthy of notice. On his accession, the English demanded the repeal of the new laws of the Danes and the re-establishment of the Anglo-Saxon institutions and laws of Ethelred. Edward, therefore, caused a code of laws to be compiled from those of Ethelbert, Ina and Alfred, and upon this code it is supposed that our common law is based.

Harold II. (A.D. 1066).—There were three claimants to the crown:

1. **Edgar Atheling**, the lawful heir by descent, being the grandson of Edmund Ironside.
2. **William, Duke of Normandy**, Edward's cousin, to whom the late King had bequeathed the throne.
3. **Harold**, son of Earl Godwin.

Edgar being but ten years old, his claims were passed over, as were those of **William**, on the ground that the power to appoint

a successor was solely vested in the great council of the nation—the Witanagemot. Harold mounted the throne without encountering any opposition in England. The opening of his reign was marked by beneficial reforms: many old Saxon customs, which had lapsed during the Norman influence at court, were restored. Harold was not long left at peace. **Tosti**, the King's brother, and **Harold Hardrada**, King of Norway, invaded the north. Harold marched to oppose them. The Battle of **Stamford Bridge** (or **Battle Bridge**) was fought, and in the fight Tosti and Hardrada fell. The severe losses sustained in this engagement by the conquering army crippled the forces which were almost immediately to be called upon to oppose **William, Duke of Normandy.**

The Norman Invasion.—Three days after the battle of Stamford Bridge, whilst Harold was in the North, William with an army of 60,000 men landed near Hastings, on September 28, A.D. 1066. The Saxon King hastened to meet the invader; all his efforts in the direction of an amicable arrangement proved fruitless. On the morning of October 14, the opposing forces met in the **Battle of Hastings** (or **Senlac**). Harold led his men with desperate courage, and for hours the resistance was maintained. At last Harold fell; this decided the issue of the fight. The dead King's followers lost heart, and they were totally defeated. William had earned his title of **the Conqueror.** With the death of Harold **ended the Saxon Monarchy,** which had lasted 600 years, and an alien mounted the throne.

CHAPTER VI.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

The Anglo-Saxon Government was what is known as an elective monarchy. Although the King was usually chosen from the family of the late sovereign, there was no rule of strict lineal succession. The sons and kinsfolk of the King were **Athelings** (or nobles). Next in rank to the **Cyning** (or King) were the **Ealdormen** (nobles owning at least forty hides of land), who governed the shires. They were equal in rank to the Bishops, with whom they presided over the courts of justice. Nobles of a lower class were called **Thanes,** and consisted of men who owned at least five hides of land. The **Ceorls** were

men, belonging to the class of yeomen, who cultivated lands which they rented from the Thanes. The lowest class of all went by the name of **Theowes** (or slaves). The Theow was the absolute property of his lord, and by law was not entitled to possess anything. This class was recruited from the ranks of prisoners of war, and persons arrested for debt or crime.

The King's Revenue was derived from various sources: The crown-lands; fines and penalties; the tolls and customs; the estates of those who died without heirs; succession dues charged upon all estates, and various other taxes.

The Witanagemot was the great Parliament or Council of the nation; the meaning of the word is 'the meeting of wise men.' It was presided over by the **King**, who alone was empowered to convene this assembly, and consisted of the nobles and the higher clergy. This council met at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, to advise the King, and its consent was necessary for:

1. The enacting of laws.
2. The imposition of taxes.
3. The trial of State criminals, wherein the members were judges.
4. The nomination of a sovereign.

The Chief Courts of Local Government among the Saxons were:

1. **The Hall-mote**, held by the **tithing-lord** in his own hall. This tribunal was for the minor offences committed within the radius of its jurisdiction.

2. **The Hundred-mote** consisted of the **Thanes**, whose property lay within its district. This court was presided over by the alderman and the bishop of the diocese, and was attended by the reeve and four men from every town lying within the hundred (each shire was divided into smaller districts that went by the name of 'hundreds'). Offences too grave to be brought before the Hall-mote were tried here. In this court, too, contracts for the sale of property were made.

3. **The Shire-mote** met twice a year to settle (1) ecclesiastical matters; (2) the rights and dues of the Crown; (3) the disputes of private persons. This court was presided over by the bishop and the ealdorman, and all the landowners in the shire were compelled to attend.

Saxon Modes of Trial:

1. **Compurgation**, whereby the accused had to swear publicly that he was innocent, and then to bring a number of his neighbours, many or few, in fixed proportion to the offence, to testify their belief in his guiltlessness.

2. **Ordeal.**—Ordeal was of two kinds—either by **fire** or **water**. The accused had to carry a red-hot bar of iron three steps, or plunge his hand into a vessel of boiling water. If the injuries inflicted upon the hand were healed within three days the man was pronounced innocent.

Saxon Punishments. — Almost every offence, including

murder, could be expiated by fines, which varied in proportion to the rank of the injured man.

Division of Land.—The land belonging to the general community was called **Folkland,** which was hired by individuals from the state. Land held by private persons as freehold by deed or charter was called **Bocland.** The country was divided into **Shires,** which represent the present counties, and smaller divisions called **Hundreds.** The Hundreds were divided into **Tythings,** or association of ten families. **Frankpledge** was 'a system of mutual police,' whereby all the members of a Tything were responsible for the good behaviour of each other.

Religion.—The immediate effect of the Saxon invasion was to temporarily kill Christianity in this country. It was re-introduced into England in A.D. 597, when Pope Gregory sent a priest named **Augustine** to try to win over the English to the teachings of Christianity. This was during the reign of **Ethelbert,** King of Kent, whose wife, **Bertha,** daughter of Caribert, King of France, converted him. Augustine and his missionaries proselytized with great zeal: churches began to spring up, and Augustine was made Archbishop of Canterbury. Ethelbert and many of his subjects were baptized, and gradually the old heathen worship gave place all over England to Christianity. Its result was to humanize the people—to cause them to forego their barbarity in war and teach them 'the divine quality of mercy.' The monks did much to aid the spread of civilization and fostered education.

Anglo-Saxon Literature.—Literature made its greatest strides during the Saxon epoch in the reign of Alfred. The first English poet was **Caedmon,** who wrote a metrical version of the Scriptures. The first English historian was **Gildas,** who wrote a 'History of Britain.' He died in 570. **The Venerable Bede,** a monk of Durham, wrote thirty-eight works, nearly all in Latin, including the 'History of the Anglo-Saxon Church.' He died in 735. Some of Bede's works were translated by **Alfred,** himself a voluminous author.

Commercial Progress.—The building of a navy by King Alfred had promoted commercial intercourse with foreign nations, but in consequence of the ceaseless Danish invasions and civil warfare very little progress was made until after the Norman Conquest.

Summary of Events during the Saxon Period:

Saxon Invasion	A.D.	449
Re-introduction of Christianity by Augustine	,,	597
Introduction of a code of laws by Ina, King of Wessex	,,	709
First Danish Invasion	,,	787

'Peter's Pence' levied for the maintenance of an English college at Rome by Offa, King of Mercia	A.D.	793
Egbert becomes sole King	,,	827
Edward the Elder first assumes the title, 'King of England'...	,,	901
Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury	,,	958
'Danegelt' first levied	,,	991
Sweyn, King of the Danes, conquers England	,,	1013
The kingdom divided between Edmund Ironside and Canute ...	,,	1016
Battle of Hastings and Norman Conquest	,,	1066

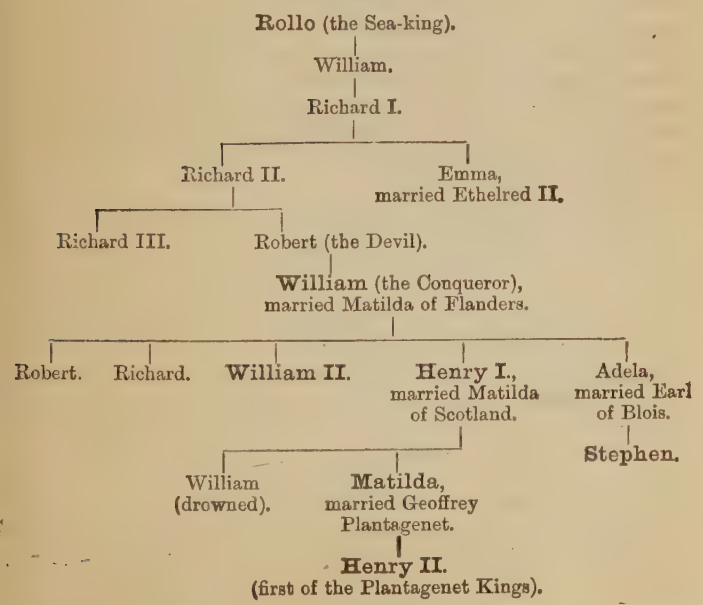
THE NORMAN PERIOD:

Commenced 1066, ended 1154. Duration, 88 years.

SOVEREIGNS.

William I. (the Conqueror)	1066
William II. (son)	1087
Henry I. (brother)	1100
Stephen (nephew)	1135

GENEALOGY.



CHAPTER VII.

WILLIAM I., 1066-1087.

William I., surnamed the Conqueror, was descended from Rollo, the Norse sea-king, who in 913 obtained the dukedom of Normandy from the King of the West Franks. His claims to the English throne were three:

1. **The promise of Edward the Confessor**, who nominated William, his cousin, his successor. In so doing, Edward was usurping the powers of the Witanagemot; consequently, William could base no legal claim on this unconstitutional act.
2. **The Right of Conquest.**
3. **The unwilling assent wrung from the Saxons.**

William's formal Accession.—On the death of Harold, the English made one last show of independence. **Edgar Atheling**, grandson of Edmund Ironside, was proclaimed King. But the courage of the English was not proof against the conquering progress of the usurper. In the name of the Witan, Stigand (Archbishop of Canterbury) and Edgar offered the crown to the Norman Duke. William accepted it as his right. He was crowned at Westminster Abbey by the Archbishop of York on Christmas Day, 1066, in the presence of the Saxon and Norman nobles. The ceremony was not unattended with bloodshed on the part of the turbulent Norman soldiers: this augury, darkly ominous of coming oppression, still further embittered the English, stung to the quick by the humiliation of conquest, against their Norman masters.

Opening Events of William's Reign.—Confidence was somewhat increased among the English by the first acts of William's reign, which were marked by great moderation. With the exception of the estates of Harold's family, most of the property of the Saxon landowners was for the time left untouched. The Saxon laws were retained, and strict impartiality was observed in the administration of justice. A new charter, confirming their rights and liberties, was granted to the citizens of London. The English were becoming quite reconciled to the new rule, when this hopeful state of affairs abruptly changed.

First Confiscations.—William's conciliatory attitude towards the conquered people had not been assumed without an ulterior object. The Conqueror realized that the security of his position was as yet by no means assured. Whilst his diplomatic affability

was winning him the goodwill of his new subjects, fortresses were being built by his orders all over the country, and garrisoned with soldiers. Among these may be mentioned the Tower of London. With his position indefinitely strengthened, William's manner underwent a sudden change; he then exacted in full from the conquered the penalties of defeat. To the Norman adventurers who had aided the ambitious Duke the invasion of England had been purely a speculation; they now looked to William for the rewards of their venture. A heavy war-tribute was levied on the English, and their estates were forfeited and given to those soldiers of fortune whose swords had won for him the crown. The widows of the Englishmen who had fallen at Senlac were married to the Norman nobles. The Saxon monasteries and churches were not exempt from this general spoliation, and all the lucrative ecclesiastical offices were filled by Norman priests.

Ineffectual Revolt.—In 1067 William revisited his dukedom, leaving the government of England in the hands of his half-brother, **Odo**, Bishop of Bayeux, and **William Fitz-Osbern**, Seneschal of Normandy. The tyrannical oppression of the two regents and of the Norman barons kindled the flame of rebellion all over the country. In alarm William hastened back to England.

The Saxon Power crushed.—First of all, William marched to Devon, and reduced the West to submission by besieging and capturing Exeter. Edwin and Morcar, two despoiled nobles, made a determined stand in the North, aided by Malcolm, King of Scots; but after the capture of York the insurgents were compelled to fly. Shortly afterwards the **Danes** came to the help of the English. Again Malcolm and Edgar Atheling took the field, and marched to York, which city they captured. William, however, bought off the Danes, and advanced with a vast army, which Malcolm dared not encounter. The Scottish King fled to his dominions, and William crushed out the last spirit of resistance lingering in the North. He laid waste the district between the Humber and the Tyne with fire and sword, and those whom the soldiers spared perished from cold or starvation (1069). The whole country was now under the Norman yoke, though a few last insurgents still held out under **Hereward** in the Isle of Ely, which lay in the heart of almost trackless marshes. They were betrayed, however; and, with the capture of this stronghold (known as the 'Camp of Refuge') in 1072, **the Norman Conquest was finally completed.** The

same year Malcolm of Scotland agreed to do homage to William, who thus became the acknowledged King of all Britain.

Rebellion of Norman Nobles.—Having subdued the Saxon insurgents, William once more crossed the sea to take possession of **Maine**, a province which had been bequeathed to him by its late Count, in 1075. In his absence a conspiracy, known as the **Bridal of Norwich** (inasmuch as the plot was hatched during a marriage-feast), was formed by some leading Norman nobles to dethrone William, and divide the kingdom amongst themselves. Waltheof, the last of the Saxon earls, was connected with this plot. The regent, Lanfranc (the Italian Archbishop of Canterbury, in whose favour the Saxon archbishop, Stigand, had been deposed), took prompt measures to crush this rising, and Waltheof was beheaded.

William's Last Years were darkened by private troubles. His eldest son, **Robert**, attempted to wrest Normandy from his father. The latter was compelled to reduce his son to obedience by leading his forces against the would-be usurper in 1079. William's other two sons, **William** and **Henry**, were perpetually disputing about the succession. **Odo**, the King's half-brother, conspired against him; his second son, **Richard**, was killed whilst hunting; his wife, **Matilda**, died. William did not long survive these sorrows. During an expedition against Philip of France, whilst besieging the town of **Mantes**, he received a fatal injury, caused by the stumbling of his horse, and died at Rouen (1087).

William's System of Government.—William was a stern, but on the whole a wise, lawgiver, and his rule did a great deal of good for England, which he was honestly anxious to govern well. He based his system of legislation on the laws of Edward the Confessor. His laws against thieves and murderers were enforced to the full, and fear, pure and simple, deterred many from roguery. These are four important points in William's system of government which must be noticed:

1. **Curfew Bell** instituted.
2. **Domesday Book** compiled.
3. **Forest Laws** enacted.
4. **Feudal Tenure of Land** more fully developed and partly systematized.

The Curfew Bell was a continental custom, introduced by William into England. Curfew is derived from **couvre feu** ('put out the fire'), and this bell was rung at sunset in summer, and about eight o'clock in winter, as a signal that all fires and lights had to be extinguished. As the

houses were chiefly wooden erections, this **precaution against fire** (not, as some writers say, intended as a token of servitude) was not without some basis of common-sense. This enactment was repealed by Henry I.

The Domesday Book is a record of the extent, value, population, and state of cultivation of all the lands in the kingdom, according to a survey made at the King's order. The chief object of this undertaking was to provide an accurate basis for taxation.

Forest Laws were harsh enactments passed for the preservation of deer. To gratify his passion for hunting, the King ruthlessly destroyed from thirty to sixty villages and many churches in Hampshire, in order to plant the **New Forest.** It was enacted that anyone who hunted in the royal forests or killed a deer should be blinded.

The Feudal System.—The elements of the system of feudal tenure existed in this country before the Norman Conquest, but it is to William I. and Rufus that we owe the system in its perfection. The King gave estates to whom he pleased, and in return the receiver, or **vassal,** agreed to render him, as **liege lord,** military service and certain dues. These vassals in their turn granted their land, or portions of it, to sub-vassals upon the same terms, and so on to the humblest ranks of life, until a link of service bound together the entire community. In apportioning out the lands upon this system, William took care never to grant to one noble two estates in any one county, lest his power should make him a danger to the crown. The importance of the feudal system, as affecting the social and political life of England, cannot be over-estimated. Britain, which had been split up into various petty kingdoms from time to time, now became **knit into one permanent kingdom** under a strong government.

William's Character and Habits.—William possessed in a marked degree capacity for government. Self-willed and unscrupulous, he allowed no mere question of right or wrong to form an obstacle to his purpose; yet, where it was no hindrance to his projects, he was an upholder of justice. There is no doubt he was anxious to govern England well; but in order to keep himself feared and respected he took care that his rule should be with a rod of iron. William was renowned for his physical strength, and his love of those amusements which required resolution and endurance. Taking into consideration the times in which he lived, we may pronounce William a fairly religious man. At any rate, he was scrupulous in the observance of religion; he endowed monasteries, separated the ecclesiastical courts from the civil, giving the clergy sole jurisdiction over the affairs of the Church, and continued the payment of **Peter's pence** (a tax originated by Offa, in A.D. 793, for the maintenance of an English college at Rome, founded by Ina, King of Wessex), though he refused to render homage to the Pope.

CHAPTER VIII.

WILLIAM II., 1087-1100.

Usurpation of William II.—Robert, as the eldest son of the late King, laid claim to the succession; but immediately on his father's death, **William** (surnamed **Rufus**), the second surviving son, hastened from Rouen, and was crowned at Westminster by Archbishop Lanfranc.

Rebellion of the Barons.—The succession of William did not commend itself to the Norman barons for two reasons:

1. Most of them possessed estates in both England and Normandy, and were accordingly anxious that the two countries should continue to be ruled by one man.
2. They foresaw that their power would be far less under the masterful William and his primate Lanfranc than under the lax sway of the easy-going Robert.

The moving spirit in the rebellion was **Odo**, Bishop of Bayeux and half-brother of the Conqueror, whose jealousy of Lanfranc prompted him to stir up a revolt. He was joined by the chief Norman nobles. On William's side, however, were ranged the great mass of Englishmen, whose reasons for siding with the usurper were these:

1. Even under William I., who kept the barons in check, the English had suffered much from the oppression of these Norman nobles; and they feared that this power for committing injustices would be doubled under so feeble a king as Robert.
2. The English remembered the cruel regency of Odo in the last reign.
3. In an appeal to them, William promised the English good government and humane laws, thereby gaining their goodwill.

The partisans of Robert had little chance against William's superior numbers. They were defeated, their castles were taken, and **Odo** was driven into exile.

William's Invasion of Normandy.—William coveted his brother's dukedom of Normandy, and invaded it (1090). But before hostilities had been carried to any length, the intervention of the nobles brought about a compromise. In 1091 a treaty was entered into, by the terms of which, in event of either brother dying without heirs, the dominions of both should fall to the survivor.

War with Scotland.—In the same year William, assisted by his brother **Robert**, undertook an expedition against Malcolm of Scotland, brother-in-law of Edgar Atheling, who, during William's absence in Normandy, had invaded the northern

counties. The result of the expedition was to compel Malcolm to relinquish his claims on Cumberland, which had been granted by Edmund to the King of Scotland. Two years later (1093) Malcolm again invaded England, and he and his son were slain.

The Crusades.—During this reign the first Crusade was undertaken (1095). Palestine had fallen into the hands of Turks, and the stories of the barbarities inflicted by the Mahometans on Christian pilgrims and merchants excited the horror and indignation of Europe. At the bidding of Pope Urban II., a pilgrim who had escaped from the clutches of the Turks, by name **Peter the Hermit**, preached the mission of the Crusades throughout Christendom. The effect of his fiery eloquence was magical. Men of all ranks and nationalities responded to this cry to arms, and a vast army set out, bent on driving the Saracens from Palestine. **Robert of Normandy** was infected by the prevailing enthusiasm, and, in order to join the Crusade, he mortgaged his duchies of Normandy and Maine to William for five years for the sum of ten thousand marks (the modern equivalent of which would be more than six thousand pounds), which the English, under protest, were compelled to pay. Among others who joined in the Holy War were Edgar Atheling and a French knight, Godfrey of Bouillon. Only a remnant of this undisciplined host reached Palestine. In 1099, however, Jerusalem was temporarily freed from Mahometan tyranny, and **Godfrey of Bouillon** was elected its first King.

Death of William.—Whilst Robert was away in Palestine, William met his death whilst hunting in the New Forest, being found with an arrow in his heart. Suspicion fell on **Sir Walter Tyrrel**; but whether the King's death was the result of accident or design will never be satisfactorily determined (1100).

Struggle between Church and Crown. — Lanfranc, whose wise counsels had acted as a check upon William, had died in 1089. After Lanfranc's death the King gave rein to his evil passions, among which not the least were rapacity and cruelty. None of the promises of good government made to the English were kept; they were plundered by means of ruinous and unjustifiable taxes, that the King might gratify his extravagance and lustful pleasures. The new adviser of the King was **Ranulf**, a Norman priest, who was nicknamed '**Flambard.**' This man insinuated himself into the royal favour by devising new methods of enriching the King's treasury. At this time

the clergy held the greater part of their lands **on feudal tenure.** Ranulf suggested the practice of keeping abbeys and bishoprics vacant and appropriating their revenues, on the ground that as there was no natural heir to claim them, he (the King) would reserve them till he found suitable successors for the vacancies. These vacancies were only filled by men who would purchase the living by an enormous bribe. These proceedings were palpably illegal, as the right to appoint bishops lay with the Church and not with the Crown; and the outcome of these flagrant abuses was the **Struggle between King and Clergy,** which was maintained until the reign of John.

Anselm.—Since Lanfranc's death in 1089, the see of Canterbury had been kept vacant. It was not until William became seriously ill that he consented to fill the vacant archbishopric. **Anselm,** a man of learning and piety, was appointed successor to Lanfranc. Anselm was courageous and outspoken in his denunciation of the evils of his time; he rebuked the King for his practice of selling clerical offices and his other unjust devices for raising money. Constant quarrels ensued between William and his conscientious primate; and at last the King's violence became such that in 1097 Anselm withdrew to Rome.

Character of William II.—William had all his father's vices and few of his virtues; he was irreligious, licentious and intemperate. To meet his reckless extravagance he burdened the country with unjust taxes. He inherited his father's courage, but with this quality was mingled a disposition towards wanton cruelty; the severe **Forest Laws** of his father he made still harsher. In one respect his rule was beneficial—he kept the barons in check and limited their power of oppression. In this way peace was secured to the English husbandmen and tillers of the soil. William possessed a love of architecture, and caused many buildings to be erected; the finest of these was **Westminster Hall.** William also built a wall round the Tower of London. He died unmarried.

CHAPTER IX.

HENRY I., 1100-1135.

Accession.—Immediately upon his brother's death **Henry** hastened to Winchester, seized the royal treasures, and proceeded to London. There he was proclaimed King, and crowned in

Westminster Abbey by Maurice, Bishop of London, two days after the death of Rufus. The rightful heir was **Robert**—(1) Because of his **seniority**; (2) because of the **treaty** made in Normandy, by the terms of which the united countries fell to the survivor of the two brothers.

Henry's Early Acts.—Henry opened his reign well. To gain the goodwill of his subjects, the King granted a **charter of liberties**, in which he promised:

1. To the **Saxons**: a general confirmation of the laws of Edward the Confessor and the abolition of **Danegelt** and the **Curfew**.
2. To the **Clergy**: that he would not hold possession of the rich benefices and livings.
3. To the **Barons**: that he would remove some of the burdens of the feudal system.

Henry's next act was a wise stroke of policy, and won for him the favour of all the English—this was his marriage with **Matilda**, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland, and niece of Edgar Atheling. Matilda was in direct descent from Egbert, and by this marriage the Normans became allied to the royal line of the Saxons. Other popular acts were the imprisonment of the hated Ranulf Flambard and the recall of Anselm.

Robert's Attempt to Enforce his Claim on the Throne.—Henry's elder brother, Robert, had returned from the crusades, and, after taking possession of the Duchy of Normandy, he invaded England, relying on the support of the Norman barons, with the intention of ousting Henry. The English to a man stood by Henry, and a battle that doubtless would have crushed the Norman power in England was only averted by the intervention of Anselm. Robert was compelled to come to terms and content himself with Normandy.

Invasion of Normandy.—Soon afterwards Henry seized the pretext of his brother's weak government to invade Normandy; a battle was fought at **Tenchebrai**, wherein Robert's forces were totally defeated, and Robert himself was taken prisoner (1106). Henry kept his brother confined in Cardiff Castle, Glamorganshire, until his death in 1135. Robert's son, **William**, made an attempt some years later to regain his father's inheritance from the grasp of the English King, but he was completely defeated by Henry at **Brenville** (1119).

Death of the Heir-Apparent.—Henry stayed a year in Normandy, to make secure his position there; and he made the nobles swear allegiance to his only son, **William**, the heir-apparent to the English throne, and recognise him as Robert's successor. But on the voyage home the **White Ship**, in which

the young prince sailed, foundered, and William was drowned (1120). The old records tell us that Henry 'never smiled again,' and passed the rest of his days sorrowing for his son. This assertion, however, loses somewhat of its weight when we recall the fact that Henry's death was caused by excessive gluttony.

Quarrel between Church and Crown renewed.—Anselm had not long been recalled before a quarrel arose between him and the King. The clergy held most of their lands from the King on feudal tenure, and Henry claimed that the clergy should do homage for the lands of their sees, after the manner of the lay barons, and receive from him the ceremony of **investiture**. This was the formality by which the new prelate was put in possession of his benefice: it consisted of the King placing in his hands the ring and crosier, the symbols of his spiritual authority. This custom gave the King supreme power over the Church. The Pope claimed that the clergy should be independent of civil authority. Anselm accordingly, in obedience to the Pope, refused to do homage to Henry. During the controversy that ensued Anselm was for the second time banished. Eventually the dispute was settled by a compromise. Henry gave up his claim to invest the prelates with their spiritual authority, whilst the Pope allowed the clergy to do homage for their **temporalities**. Anselm died two years after this concession (1107).

Minor Events of the Reign:

The Order of Knights Templars was established in 1118. This was a military and religious body, instituted to protect the pilgrims on their journeys to the Holy Sepulchre.

A Flemish Settlement was founded in Wales by Henry, and to the Flemings we owe the introduction into England of **woollen manufacture**.

It is from this reign that we may date the origin of **English Romance**. Geoffrey of Monmouth wrote a fanciful history of Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table.

Henry's Death and Family.—Henry died from a surfeit of lampreys in 1135. He had married twice. By Matilda, his first wife, he had a son and a daughter, **William** and **Matilda**; his second wife, Adelais, daughter of the Duke of Louvain, bore him no children. His daughter Matilda (who married, first, **Henry V.**, Emperor of Germany, and afterwards **Geoffrey Plantagenet**, son of the Count of Anjou) Henry, after the death of his son, nominated as his successor. On three occasions the King made his nobles swear an oath of fealty to Matilda.

Despite these precautions, however, Henry was succeeded by his nephew, **Stephen.**

Henry's Character: England under his Government.—Though Henry was a self-willed and unscrupulous man, he was a great king. Under his vigorous rule peace and order were maintained in England; the unsparing justice he meted out to thieves and rogues won respect for his laws. His reforms did much to strengthen the administration of government; for he sent judges throughout the country to try criminals, and this dealt a blow at some of the abuses of the local courts. Henry earned the gratitude of the people by breaking the power of the great Norman landowners; the estates of the most turbulent among them he confiscated, and in the places of their banished lords he put men on whose loyalty he could rely. Cultured himself, Henry encouraged learning, and the monasteries became centres of teaching. Commerce, too, made rapid strides, partly because the traders enjoyed greater security, owing to the waning power of the barons, partly owing to the introduction of new industries by the Flemish settlers in Wales. But though Henry protected the English from other tyrants, his own rule was tyrannical, and he imposed taxes that fell very heavily on the people. He did not restrain his ruling passions of faithlessness and revengefulness, as illustrated by his treatment of his brother Robert, and the shameless violation of some of his promises to the people.

CHAPTER X.

STEPHEN, 1135-1154.

Accession.—No sooner had Henry died than **Stephen,** who had sworn with the other nobles to be faithful to Matilda's cause, broke his oath, and persuaded the nobles to make him king. He was crowned in London by the primate in 1135.

Stephen Claimed the Crown as grandson of William I., and thus first prince of the royal line. His claim was sustained by:

1. **The desire of the people** for his succession, as Stephen had been one of the most popular men at Henry's court.
2. **The influence of the nobles,** who opposed Matilda's claim, partly because they feared she might continue her father's policy, which had aimed at destroying their power, and partly because, with the feudal idea of the times, the rule of a woman was distasteful to them.

3. **The favour of the Pope and the clergy**, who hoped to find Stephen a strong partisan in ecclesiastical affairs.

4. **By his ready promises** of concessions and good government. The **concessions** promised were :

(i.) To maintain the rights of the Church and grant it new privileges.
(ii.) To put down all injustice and taxation.
(iii.) To allow the nobles to build and fortify castles and also to hunt in their own forests.

The Immediate Results of Stephen's accession were disastrous to the country. The nobles, whom William the Conqueror and his sons had been strong enough to keep in check, built and fortified castles, and acted as chartered free-booters in avowed defiance of the King. These marauder-barons would issue from their strongholds, with their swarms of armed retainers, and pillage the neighbouring towns and villages. Days of terror set in for the English. No one with property was secure, and tortures were freely employed by the rapacious barons to extort plunder. The land was left untilled, and to these horrors was added that of famine. Meanwhile **civil war** broke out.

Invasion of the Scots.—In 1138, David, King of Scotland, took up the cause of his niece, Matilda. He invaded England with an army of Scots and mercenaries, who were guilty of the most savage barbarities on their march. The men of the northern counties rose in arms at the call of Thurstan, the aged Archbishop of York, to defend their homes. They opposed the invaders near Northallerton, and defeated them with great slaughter. The English carried into the field the banners of three Saxon saints hung round a ship's mast, from which the contest received the name of the **Battle of the Standard.**

Matilda Proclaimed Queen.—About this time Stephen foolishly alienated the clergy, by quarrelling with **Roger**, Bishop of Salisbury. The powerful support of the Church was withdrawn from him, and this grave mistake afforded Matilda a favourable opportunity of coming in person to enforce her claims. **Robert, Earl of Gloucester**, Matilda's natural brother, the most powerful noble in England, raised an army to support her ; and after varying fortunes of war the forces of Stephen were defeated in the **Battle of Lincoln**, 1141, and Stephen was taken prisoner. All resistance now ended. Matilda was acknowledged Queen by Henry, Bishop of Winchester.

Flight of Matilda.—Matilda soon showed her incapacity for government. Her imperious insolence estranged her best friends ; her harsh refusal of the appeal made by Stephen's Queen for the release of her husband on the condition of his

renouncing his claims and retiring into a convent, turned the tide of feeling against her. Stephen's cause found new supporters, and Matilda had to fly to Oxford (1141). Here she was besieged by Stephen, until her escape from the castle, in 1142. On Robert's death in 1147, Matilda lost heart and retired to Normandy.

Prince Henry's Claim to the Crown.—Henry, the son of Matilda, after being acknowledged by the barons, in 1148, as the legitimate Duke of Normandy, bent his mind upon wresting the crown from Stephen, and became a source of much uneasiness to the King, who was anxious to secure the succession to his son Eustace. Henry landed in England in 1153, and prepared for battle at **Malmesbury**, where most of the nobles joined him. But the sudden death of Eustace offered a solution of the difficulty. A treaty was entered into at **Winchester**, and the arrangement was made that Stephen was to reign for the remainder of his life, and be succeeded by Henry.

Death and Family.—Less than a year afterwards, Stephen died (1154). By his wife, Matilda of Boulogne, he had several children. The eldest, **Eustace**, died before his father; **William**, the second son, was appointed to succeed to the Earldom of Boulogne.

Stephen's Character.—Whilst possessed of many attractive qualities, Stephen lacked the firmness of his predecessors, whose administrations, if harsh, had nevertheless ensured peace and prosperity for England. His policy of toleration towards the barons was fatal. Only the determined exercise of a power strong enough to curb the lawlessness of the barons could have saved the country from the horrors that befell it during that disastrous reign. This force of will Stephen did not possess. Physically, he was strong, brave, and gifted with a winning personality that gained for him the popularity and favour of the English.

The Norman Period closed with the death of Stephen.

CHAPTER XI.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

General Results of the Conquest:

1. The introduction into this country of a foreign dynasty, which brought with it its own nobility, language, and customs, and drew England into relation with the rest of Europe.

2. The superseding of the English clergy by the more learned Norman clergy, which led to the spread of learning and the revival of literature, at the same time increasing the power and influence of the Church.

3. The conflict between the two races, which were eventually to become merged into one. When this consummation was finally attained, the Saxon element remained in marked predominance, both in the matter of **language** and **national characteristics**. But to this union of two races the Normans had brought their love of art, of learning, and chivalry, which added much to the moral strength of the nation.

The Feudal System.—The most important change brought about by the Norman conquest arose from an innovation upon which we have already briefly touched—**the Feudal System.** The crude elements of this system had previously existed among the Saxons, but its **development** is due to William the Conqueror. On his conquest of England, William claimed the proprietorship of all the land in the kingdom, and the right of granting it to whom he wished, in return for **military** service. William confiscated most of the estates of the English and distributed them among the **Norman barons.** The barons subdivided their lands among the Saxon thanes, whom the Normans called **franklins,** and in the same way required military service. On similar conditions the franklins sublet portions to their **vassals.** This feudal relationship enabled the King to bring an army into the field whenever he desired, and gave him a power that was practically absolute.

How the Feudal System affected the People.—This system was very oppressive to the majority of the Saxons, whom it reduced to the position of hewers of wood and drawers of water to the new race. When the King used his feudal rights as a means of extorting money from his **tenants-in-chief,** the nobles in turn would plunder their tenants to meet the King's demands. Thus the burden fell, not on the Norman barons, but on the middle and lower class of the English. The lowest class, the **villeins,** though nominally freemen, were in reality slaves, for, though they could not be sold apart from the estate on which they were born, they owed labour-service to its owner. The feudal system began to decline in England soon after the accession of Henry II. The abuse of the power which it gave to the King reached its climax in the reign of John, when the threatening attitude of the barons compelled that monarch to sign the **Great Charter.**

The Laws.—The laws of the Saxons were retained after the Conquest, but with considerable modifications. One great change was the **separation of the ecclesiastical and civil courts,** granted by William I. in recognition of the support

which the Church had accorded to his claims. The Saxon **Witanagemot** was superseded by the **Magnum Concilium**, or Great Council, where the archbishops, bishops, and nobles sat. This Council was not called except on important occasions. By the establishment of the **Curia Regis**, or King's Court, the privilege of appeal was granted from the county and other courts, thus bringing cases directly under the King's notice. During the Norman period the administration of justice became much better regulated.

Trade and Commerce.—The Conqueror and his sons enforced the obedience of their laws, and England's commerce advanced in proportion to the feeling of security that prevailed. Trade was carried on by means of markets and fairs, and many rich traders sprang up in London, Bristol, and other large towns. The Jews were great pioneers of commerce. The principal exports consisted of wool, hides, tin, as well as such commodities as cheese, honey, etc. The imports were wine, drugs, silk, linen, etc. The **Cinque Ports**, fortified by William I., carried on a brisk trade with the Continent. These were: **Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe,** and **Sandwich.**

Agriculture.—Great improvements were introduced into gardening and agriculture—especially by the Norman monks—and many new seeds and vegetables were brought over by the Normans. Attention was given to draining the land; orchards were planted and pastures cultivated.

Dress.—Little change was noticeable in the clothing of the peasantry, who were clad in garments of coarse fabrics and untanned hide. The Normans introduced an elaborate style of dress, which was adopted by the English gentry—a loose tunic reaching to the knees, over which was worn a short cloak, furred, and embroidered with gold. The shoes had long toes, pointing upwards, and sometimes fastened to the knee by a gold chain.

Architecture.—The Normans pulled down most of the great Saxon buildings, and rebuilt them in their massive style of architecture. Many churches, cathedrals, and castles rose during this period.

Language and Literature.—The conquerors failed to impose their manner of speech on the English, although French was the language used at court, in the churches, halls of law, and schools. The people stubbornly adhered to the Saxon tongue; and gradually, though not until long after this period, the Normans began to regard themselves as English and forget

their French forefathers, and learned to speak the English language, into which, however, many words of French origin had by that time crept. After the Conquest **surnames** came into general use. These were taken from some trade, occupation, or prominent characteristic.

It is to Lanfranc's influence that we may trace the revival of literature at this period. This revival was purely an ecclesiastical one, as the authors were confined to the monks and clergy, and the principal writings were in Latin. Among the authors may be mentioned:

Lanfranc (1005-1089), who had come from Italy to the famous Norman abbey of Bec, won a deserved reputation by his theological writings.

William of Malmesbury (1095-1150), who was the best historian of his day. His principal work was 'A History of the English Kings,' extending from the landing of Hengist down to 1120.

Geoffrey of Monmouth, who died in 1154, was a learned Welsh monk, afterwards the Bishop of St. Asaph. He preserved the legendary lore of the Celtic race in a 'History of the Britons'; and in his writings we find the stories of King Arthur of the Round Table, of Lear, and of Cymbeline.

Mention must also be made of the '**Saxon Chronicle**,' which is a valuable record, compiled at different periods from documents and registers preserved in the monasteries, of the events from Alfred's time down to 1154. These annals form the principal basis of our history to the time of the Norman invasion.

Summary of Events during the Norman Period:

Battle of Hastings	1066
Devastation by William of the North of England	1069
The Saxon power finally crushed	1071
Rebellion of the Norman barons against William	1074
Tower of London built	1080
Feudal system firmly established	1085
Domesday Book completed	1086
First Crusade undertaken	1096
The Charter granted by Henry I.	1100
Battle of Tenchebrai and Conquest of Normandy	1106
Investiture Quarrel settled	1107
Stephen's Charter of Liberties	1136
Treaty of Winchester	1153

THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD:

Commenced 1154, ended 1485. Duration, 331 years.

PLANTAGENETS PROPER.

Henry II.	1154	**Edward I.**	1272
Richard I.	1189	**Edward II.**	1307
John	1199	**Edward III.**	1327
Henry III.	1216	**Richard II.**	1377

GENEALOGY

OF THE

PLANTAGENET KINGS PROPER.

Henry I.

Matilda,
m. Geoffrey Plantagenet.

Henry II.,
m. Eleanor, divorced wife of Louis VII.

Henry, d. 1183.	**Richard I.**	Geoffrey, d. 1186.	**John,** m. Isabella of Angoulême.

Henry III., m. Eleanor of Provence.	Joan, m. Alexander II. of Scotland.	Eleanor, m. Simon de Montfort.	Richard, d. 1721.

Edward I., m. Eleanor of Castile.	Edmund, Earl of Lancaster.	Margaret, m. Alexander III.

Edward II., m. Isabella of France.	Edmund, Earl of Kent.

Edward III.,
m. Philippa of Hainault.

Edward, the Black Prince, m. Joan of Kent.	Lionel, Duke of Clarence.	John of Gaunt, m. Blanche of Lancaster.	Edmund, Duke of York.	Thomas, Duke of Gloucester.
Richard II.		**Henry IV.** (first of the Lancastrian Kings).		

CHAPTER XII.

HENRY II., 1154-1189.

Accession.—In accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Winchester, Stephen was succeeded by Matilda's son Henry, who was the direct heir to the throne. On his accession in 1154, Henry, then but twenty-one years of age, became the most powerful monarch in Europe. From his mother he inherited Normandy; from his father Anjou, Touraine, and Maine; through his wife, **Eleanor of Guienne**, the divorced queen of Louis VII. of France, the vast domains of Poitou, Aquitaine, and other French provinces that lie between the Loire and the Pyrenees. He soon afterwards added Brittany to his possessions.

Opening Acts of Henry's Government.—The recent civil war had plunged the country into a state of the wildest turbulence. Henry's first care was to root out the abuses which had sprung up during Stephen's reign, and restore order. He expelled the plundering mercenaries of Stephen, and crippled the power of the barons by demolishing all the castles erected during the last reign. Charters of freedom were given to various large cities and towns; the debased coinage improved; Henry, moreover, was rigorous and impartial in the administration of justice, and punished robbery and violence with a heavy hand. He compelled Malcolm IV. of Scotland, within three years of his accession, to give up the Northern English counties, and in the same year he defeated the troublesome Welsh.

Wars in France.—The King's brother Geoffrey claimed Anjou and Maine, but in 1156 Henry compelled him to relinquish his pretensions to these dominions. For nearly six years Henry was engaged in wars with France to guard his continental possessions, and in 1159 he besieged Toulouse. But in the following year peace was made, and Henry returned to England in 1161.

Rise of Becket.—The most remarkable man of this period was **Thomas à Becket**, who was Henry's chief adviser during the earlier part of his reign. Becket was the son of a London merchant, who had started life in the service of Archbishop Theobald. The influence of Theobald and his own striking talents proved stepping-stones upon which Becket mounted to the Chancellorship. Then Becket launched forth into a manner

of living so extravagant and luxurious that his establishment outvied that of the King. In 1162 Theobald, the primate, died, and Henry at once appointed Becket as his successor.

Clerical Abuses.—In installing Becket in the vacant see, Henry had a definite purpose in view. Henry desired to check the growing power of the clergy. Grave abuses had crept into the Church, owing to the separation of civil and ecclesiastical courts. The clergy looked on the Pope as the sole head to whom they were responsible, and the lenient verdicts pronounced by ecclesiastical judges upon clergymen charged with serious crimes were, in many cases, mere travesties of justice. Henry determined to end these scandals, by making clergy and laity alike responsible to the same courts which dealt with criminal cases; he thought Becket would be an invaluable ally in his attempt to limit the power of the Church. Events showed that Henry was entirely mistaken in his man. Immediately on his appointment, Becket wholly altered the manner of his life. His luxurious splendour was exchanged for the strictest austerity and self-denial; he spent his time in fasting and devotion, and placed himself in the forefront of the struggle between clergy and King as the determined champion of the Church.

The Constitutions of Clarendon.—In 1164 Henry summoned a council of barons and prelates, and the **Constitutions of Clarendon** were drawn up, containing sixteen resolutions, the most important of which were:

1. That clergymen charged with crime should be tried in the civil courts.
2. That no clergyman of rank should quit the country without permission from the King.
3. That no appeals to the Pope should be made except on the authority of the King.
4. That the prelates should be considered as barons, and as such should be subject to feudal burdens.
5. That no tenant-in-chief should be excommunicated or his lands put under an interdict except with the King's consent.

These constitutions were subscribed to by all the bishops, even by the reluctant Becket; but Pope Alexander III. condemned them in the strongest terms and declared them null and void. Becket at once proceeded to set the constitutions at defiance, and fled from the country.

Murder of Becket.—Becket fled to the court of Louis VII., and the protection extended to him resulted in a war between England and France. But eventually peace was made, and a reconciliation effected between Becket and the King. In 1170 Becket returned to England, where his first act was to excom-

municate the Archbishop of York and the Bishops of London and Salisbury, who at the King's desire had crowned Henry's son, to enable him to act as viceroy for his father. The King was in Normandy when he learned of the primate's arbitrary act, and a hasty speech which escaped him, expressing a wish that 'this turbulent priest' were dead, was acted upon by four gentlemen of his household. Without Henry's knowledge, these self-constituted arbiters of the quarrel determined to take the law into their own hands. They proceeded to Canterbury Cathedral and assassinated Becket on the steps of the altar, December 29, 1170.

The Results of the Murder.—This cowardly crime was fatal to the clerical reforms contemplated by Henry. Becket was canonized as a saint and a martyr, and thousands visited his tomb. The horror and indignation of the nation at the tragic death of a sincere and fearless champion of the Church's cause put the enforcement of the **Constitutions** out of the question for the present. Six years later they were confirmed at **the Council of Northampton**, 1176; but the fatal issue of the contest between Becket and Henry was still fresh in the people's mind, and the King was compelled to make the following concessions:

1. That no clergyman should be brought personally before a civil tribunal for any crime whatsoever, except for offences against the forest laws, or in connection with a lay fee.
2. That any layman guilty of wilfully killing a clergyman should, besides the usual fine, forfeit all his estates.
3. That the King should not retain vacant sees longer than one year.

Conquest of Ireland.—Ireland was inhabited by the Celts, who were far behind the English in point of civilization, and was at this time divided into five principalities: Leinster, Meath, Munster, Ulster, and Connaught. **Dermot**, King of Leinster, had been driven out of his dominions owing to the united action of the other four kings, and he appealed to Henry for help. Henry granted Dermot leave to enlist an army in England. An expedition was made under the leadership of **Strongbow**, Earl of Pembroke; Wexford, Waterford, and Dublin were captured, and Dermot was reinstated. Dermot died shortly afterwards, and Strongbow succeeded him. In 1171 Henry landed in Ireland with a few soldiers, and received submission from Strongbow and most of the native princes. In the following year the country was claimed as a possession of the English Crown, Henry taking the title of 'Lord of Ireland.

Rebellion of Henry's Sons.—The King's remaining years were clouded by the conduct of his sons, who wished their father to divide his dominions with them. Henry refused to accede to these unreasonable demands. Glad of an opportunity of stirring up strife amongst the English, Louis of France, who was jealous of Henry's power, incited the three elder sons to revolt and make war on their father. These evil counsels were seconded by Eleanor, their mother, who was separated from her husband. In 1173 a strong alliance was formed of English and Norman barons, aided by Louis and the King of Scots, and preparations were made to make a simultaneous invasion of England and Normandy (1174). But these plans were frustrated by the prompt action of Henry, whose arms were successful in both England and Normandy. In that year **Henry did penance** at Becket's tomb in Canterbury Cathedral, where he caused himself to be scourged by the monks. On that same day William the Lion, King of Scotland, was taken prisoner at **Alnwick** by the justiciary, Ralph de Glanville.. Henry made political capital out of this event, by declaring that the victory was a token of heaven's restored favour. The rebellion was crushed for the time being, only, however, to break out again in 1183, in which year the King's eldest son, Henry, died of fever. These revolts continued for the rest of the reign.

Death.—The unnatural conduct of his sons broke Henry's heart, and he died of fever induced by his domestic grief in 1189.

Family.—Henry had four sons and three daughters. The former were: **Henry**, who died during his father's lifetime; **Richard**; **Geoffrey**, who also died before his father; and **John.** Henry II. was the first of the line of the Plantagenets—so called from the sprig of **Planta genista**, or **broom**, which was worn as an emblem of humility by the Count of Anjou during the first Crusade.

Military Reforms.—Henry struck the first great blow at the Feudal System by instituting **Scutage**, which was a substitution of a payment of money in place of personal service in war. Hitherto the conditions on which the great landowners held their estates were their obligations to aid the King in war. Taught by the experiences of Stephen's reign, Henry saw the imprudence of having powerful warriors as tenants, and he hoped by freeing them from the necessity of fighting to turn them into peaceable subjects. The scutage, or shield-money, enabled Henry to hire soldiers for his foreign wars. Later (in 1181)

Henry thoroughly organized a national militia for the defence of the country by passing a law, known as the **Assize of Arms**, which compelled every freeman to provide himself with arms and hold himself in readiness to defend England against invaders.

Judicial Reforms.—In 1176 the kingdom was divided into six districts (or 'circuits'), and three judges from the Curia Regis were appointed to each district for the better administration of justice. These itinerant justices, technically known as **Justices in eyre**, visited the county courts in each district in regular circuit, superseding the sheriff, who had formerly presided over this court. In this reign a new mode of trial was adopted—the trial by **Grand Assize**. Hitherto disputes concerning the ownership of land had been settled by single combat between accuser and accused, in the belief that 'God would guard the right.' Henry enacted that the disputants might refer to the decision of a grand jury of sixteen men, consisting of four knights chosen by the sheriff, and twelve freemen of the district chosen by the knights. The importance of this reform cannot be overstated, as from it sprang our modern **Trial by Jury.**

Character of Henry II.—Henry was a strong, energetic ruler—zealous in correcting abuses, resolute in enforcing law. To his ability as an administrator of justice England of to-day owes the beginnings of a sound government. Under his rule the mutual prejudices between the English and the Normans began to fade away. Henry's failings were as conspicuous as his virtues: he was crafty, passionate and unforgiving, and frequently he was unscrupulous as to the means he employed to gain his ends.

CHAPTER XIII.

RICHARD I., 1189-1199.

Accession.—The pathetic death of his father, estranged from wife and family, seemingly filled Richard with a sudden remorse for having hastened, by his unnatural conduct, the late King's end. After showing his grief by the dead body of his father, in the Abbey of Fontevraud, Richard returned to England. His claim to the throne as eldest surviving son of Henry II. was unopposed, and he was crowned at Westminster on September 3, 1189.

Massacre of the Jews.—The day of the coronation was marked by a terrible outrage on the Jews of London. Since the Norman Conquest a great number of Jews had come over to England. They had been permitted by royal protection to establish themselves in certain quarters of several of the large towns, known as '**Jewries**'; but they were treated as aliens and enjoyed no rights of citizenship. These men were held by the English in universal hatred, partly owing to the fact that they were a rich body, whose dealings as money-lenders were characterised by more sharp practice than was consistent with honesty, and partly, no doubt, because of national prejudice, which made the English blind to the stimulus given by these aliens to trade and industry. By way of ingratiating themselves in the royal favour, many of the leading Jews ventured abroad on the day of coronation, in defiance of official orders, and went to the abbey with rich presents for the new King. This imprudence cost them dear. The populace wanted little pretext to wreak their spite on the hated race. A cry, 'Down with the usurers!' was enough to wake the worst passions of the mob. A murderous attack was made on the Jewish quarter, and an indiscriminate massacre ensued that spared not age or sex; the houses were looted and set on fire. After a time the riot was suppressed, but no attempt was made to punish the leaders, and, thus encouraged, the flame spread like wild-fire throughout the kingdom. Terrible repetitions of this massacre took place in many of the large towns, and especially in **York**, where these scenes of wanton butchery and pillage were directly instigated by ecclesiastics. Again the murderers escaped the due reward of their crimes.

Preparations for the Crusade.—Richard cared little or nothing about England and its proper government. Disposition and his early associations had made the King a soldier. His chief ambition was to win renown in the Crusades, and he looked upon his kingdom as merely the means of furnishing him with money towards that end. He raised funds by any and every method. The homage that his father had wrung from the King of Scotland at the point of the sword he surrendered for 10,000 marks; he sold the crown lands and the offices of state. He even declared that he would sell his kingdom if he could find a purchaser. Heavy fines were imposed, quite disproportionate to offences; taxes were exacted, and the Jews compelled to drain their coffers.

The Third Crusade.—By these more than questionable

methods the King was able to get together the most powerful armament that had ever left the English shores. On December 11, 1190, Richard sailed from Dover. He left as regent William Longchamp, the Bishop of Ely, who had bought the chancellorship for 3,000 marks. Richard joined Philip Augustus, King of France, at Vezelay, in Burgundy, their united armies mustering 100,000 men. The two Kings passed the winter in Sicily. Here serious differences arose between them, and the breach widened so much that, shortly after reaching the Holy Land, Philip returned to Europe, nominally on account of ill-health, but actually to plot with John against his brother. On his way to Palestine Richard conquered **Cyprus**, the sovereignty of which he conferred on one of his friends.

Events in the Holy Land.—On Richard's arrival in Palestine the Christians were vigorously besieging **Acre**, and soon after the Saracens were compelled to surrender through famine (July 12, 1192). After the fall of Acre the Crusaders besieged and took **Ascalon**. Richard then marched to **Jerusalem**, defeating **Saladin**, the Mahometan general, who tried to impede his march, at Jaffa. But when the army halted beneath the walls of the Holy City, Richard found his ranks so thinned by disease, desertion, and loss in battle, that he was induced to conclude **a truce of three years** with the Saracen leader (1192). The terms of the truce were:

1. That the seaport towns should remain in the hands of the Christians.
2. That the pilgrims should be suffered to make their journeys to Jerusalem unmolested.

Imprisonment of Richard.—The news that his brother John was plotting to dethrone him caused Richard to hasten from Palestine. On his homeward voyage he was shipwrecked in the Adriatic, and compelled to make his journey across the Continent. Beset by dangers in an enemy's country, the King, disguised as a pilgrim under the name of Hugh the Merchant, reached Vienna. Here Richard fell into the hands of **Leopold**, Archduke of Austria. Leopold, who had never forgiven an insult put upon him by Richard at the siege of Acre, did not fail to seize this opportunity of revenge. The royal captive was loaded with chains and cast into prison. Leopold afterwards handed Richard over to the Emperor of Germany, **Henry VI.**, who kept him a prisoner for fourteen months. An old legend tells us that the place of Richard's captivity was discovered by his minstrel, Blondel, who wandered far and wide seeking his master. Chance led him to a castle in the Tyrol, and there, whilst singing a song composed by the Crusader

King, the minstrel was answered by a voice behind a grated window, which he recognised as that of his master. Richard was brought to trial at the **Diet of Worms** (May 20, 1193), where the German princes pronounced in favour of the captive. The Pope also interceded, threatening Henry with excommunication. John made every effort to keep his brother imprisoned; but public opinion was so unanimous in condemnation of the Emperor's conduct, that Richard was set free on payment of a ransom of £300,000 by the English, which almost made bankrupt the already impoverished country.

State of England on Richard's Return.—The king returned to England in March, 1194. During his absence the country had fallen upon evil times. Longchamp's regency had been marked by corruption, extortion, and tyranny. John had been intriguing with the King of France to secure the throne of his brother, and endeavouring to stir up discontent among the barons. Longchamp being an obstacle to his ambition, and his rival in power, John seized an opportunity afforded by an unconstitutional act on the part of the regent to get rid of him. He put himself at the head of a council of barons which met to depose Longchamp, and the regent, fearing his life was in peril, fled to Normandy.

Wars in France.—Richard's return was the death-blow to John's hopes of usurpation. Richard, at the entreaties of his mother, forgave his treacherous brother, though he determined to punish John's ally, Philip. Accordingly, he led an expedition against France, and for almost five years hostilities were kept up between the two countries. Finally, after the victory of the English at **Gisors** in 1198, a truce was concluded (January 13, 1199).

Insurrection of Fitz-Osbert.—Whilst the King was warring against Philip, Hubert Walter, the justiciar, was wringing money by illegal taxation for carrying on the war. In London a riot broke out in 1196, headed by William Fitz-Osbert, surnamed **Longbeard**, who complained that an undue proportion of the taxes fell on the poorer citizens. Longbeard was a fluent street-orator, who has his counterpart in the professional agitator of to-day. It is impossible to estimate the motives that actuated him; some historians consider that they were purely selfish; it is not, however, surprising that this fiery demagogue gained a tremendous hold on the affections of the heavily-burdened craftsmen, whose cause he championed against the powerful merchant-guilds. But this rebellion was

nipped in the bud; Longbeard was captured and hanged, and his followers were easily dispersed. Some two years later this unjust tax, levied for a purposeless war, was resisted successfully by the courageous Bishop of Lincoln, **Hugh of Avalon.**

Death.—A few months after the treaty of Gisors, Richard met his death. He was besieging one of his vassals, in his castle of **Chaluz** (in Poictou), after a trivial dispute concerning some treasure-trove. The King was mortally wounded by the bolt of a cross-bow discharged by an archer, and died on April 6, 1199.

Family.—Richard married the daughter of the King of Navarre, by whom he had no children. Having no son of his own, the King had always treated **Arthur,** the son of John's elder brother, Geoffrey, as his heir; but shortly before his death his mother persuaded Richard to nominate **John** as his successor.

Character of Richard I.—Richard has been glorified into an ideal hero of romance. His daring exploits and his chivalry, his might with the lance, and his almost womanly skill with the harp—all these qualities went to make the handsome warrior-king the most picturesque figure of his times. But there was a darker side to his character. Turning to that, we see the unscrupulous ambition that made him a rebellious son, the lack of moral principle and self-control that made him a profligate husband, the selfish indifference to the welfare of his own subjects, evinced by the fact that he neglected English affairs—was, in fact, away from England for all but six months during his reign. No law of any importance did England owe to his government; and under that government thousands of hard-working men were kept on the verge of starvation by taxes that were robbery in all but name, that the king might have the means of flaunting himself in his favourite *rôle* of champion of chivalry, and waging disastrous wars where the flower of England fell.

CHAPTER XIV.

JOHN, 1199-1216.

Accession.—Richard's wishes were confirmed by a council held at Northampton, and **John,** the youngest son of Henry II., was crowned at Westminster.

Wars with France.—The claims of **Arthur, Duke of**

Bretagne, a boy of twelve, having been passed over in defiance of his lineal right to the throne, the lad went to the court of the French King, who took up the boy's cause. His support, however, was but half-hearted, and shortly afterwards he made peace with John. To render their union more secure, the King of England gave his niece, Blanche of Castile, in marriage to Philip's eldest son, Louis. About this time John took a most imprudent step: he divorced his wife, the grand-daughter of Robert of Gloucester, and a blood-relation of some of the most powerful houses in England, thereby placing grievous affront on many of the barons. To crown his folly, John carried off and married **Isabella of Angoulême**, the affianced bride of the Earl of Marche, who at once induced Philip to reopen hostilities. Arthur seized this opportunity to again press his claims. He besieged the castle of **Mirabeau**, in Poictou, where John's mother was staying, but was defeated and taken prisoner (1202). The true story of Arthur's fate will doubtless never be for certain known. The lad disappeared, and there is little doubt that the dark rumours prevalent at the time were true—that the young prince had been murdered by the King's orders. Philip summoned John, as his vassal, to answer the charge of murder before his French peers. John refused to appear. He was accordingly pronounced guilty, and adjudged to have forfeited all his possessions in France. Philip entered **Normandy**, which soon fell into his power (1205). John's subjects in **Maine**, **Touraine**, **Anjou**, and **Poictou** were ready enough to transfer their allegiance to Philip, and these fiefs were annexed to the crown of France. John made a spasmodic effort to recover his lost territories; but, after a disgraceful flight on the advance of Philip's troops, a truce was made (in 1206), whereby John gave up all his French possessions except **Guienne**, **Gascony**, and the **Channel Islands**.

Quarrel with the Pope.—John had a genius for making enemies; he now quarrelled with the Pope. The see of Canterbury having become vacant by the death of Hubert, John nominated his friend John de Grey, Bishop of Norwich, and practically forced the monks of Christ Church to consent. It was a disputed question whether the power to elect a new archbishop lay solely with these monks, or whether the bishops of the province of Canterbury had the right to be consulted in the matter. The bishops appealed to the Pope, on the ground that their consent to the election of de Grey had not been asked. Pope Innocent III. set aside this election, and ordered the monks to elect **Stephen Langton**, a learned man of English

parentage then in Rome. The monks accepted the papal decision. In fury John drove the monks from the abbey at the point of the sword, and seized their treasures; he also refused to receive the new primate.

England under an Interdict.—The Pope accordingly laid England under an interdict (1208). By this act the country was deprived of religious worship. For six years the churches were closed; the rites of sacrament were no longer administered, except to infants or the dying; the dead were buried without prayer in unconsecrated ground, and marriages were solemnized in churchyards. In stubborn defiance John retaliated by plundering the Church and attacking the clergy. In 1209 the Pope pronounced sentence of **excommunication** on the King. John kept up his attitude of studied indifference. He made expeditions into Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, and exacted homage and tribute from the three countries.

John's Submission.—Finding the King still obdurate, the Pope, in 1212, pronounced John deposed, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance. He ordered Philip to invade England, and called on all Christian knights to join the French King in dethroning John. John lost his nerve. Doubtful of the fidelity of his own men, he made humiliating overtures to the Pope, whom he dared no longer defy; and at a conference with **Pandulf**, the papal legate, he promised 'to give to the Church of Rome, to Pope Innocent and his successors, the kingdom of England, and all other prerogatives of my crown,' and hold them as the Pope's vassal. The King further promised to pay an annual tribute to Rome of 1,000 marks, as an acknowledgment of vassalage (1213). The legate then went to France and informed Philip that, the interdict having been withdrawn, and England having become a fief of Rome, he must abandon his proposed enterprise. This Philip declined to do; and he proceeded to ravage **Flanders**, which was in alliance with England. The French, however, were defeated in a naval engagement by Longsword, Earl of Salisbury. Flushed with success, John invaded France. But the defeat of his allies, Otho (Emperor of Germany) and the Earl of Flanders, at **Bouvines** in 1214, was fatal to his hopes, and a five years' truce was concluded.

John and the Barons.—John returned from France weakened by defeat, to find his barons in a state of rebellion. He demanded scutage from those of the nobles who had not given him aid. His demands were refused. The nobles were tired

of the tyranny of a King who consistently broke the laws and infringed their rights. The great struggle for freedom was commencing, and the champion of this cause was Stephen Langton, who sided with the people in their resistance to the Crown, in defiance of papal commands. In this struggle the two races—the English and the Normans—stood shoulder to shoulder; the common issue at stake was strongly instrumental in uniting them into one nation. The barons based their demand for a correction of the abuses of the Feudal System on the forgotten charter of Henry I., and laid their claims before the King. John dallied with the question, refusing at first to commit himself to an answer, and then refusing point-blank. The barons, headed by Robert Fitz-Walter, had recourse to the argument of arms. They proceeded to make war upon the King with such success that, finding himself deserted on all sides, John agreed to grant the barons' demands.

Magna Charta.—This important charter, which was the firm foundation of the English Constitution, secured important privileges to every order, high and low, in the kingdom. It was signed by John at Runnymede, a meadow between Staines and Windsor, July 19, 1215. The chief provisions of this charter of English liberty were:

1. That the Church should be free to enjoy her whole rights and liberties inviolable.
2. That no scutage or aid should be imposed, except by consent of the Great Council.
3. That there should be but one weight and measure throughout the land.
4. That foreign merchants should have freedom to enter and leave the country except in times of war.
5. That no freeman should be unlawfully imprisoned, dispossessed of his property, or outlawed; and that justice should not be sold, delayed, or denied to any man.
6. That a person fined for offence should not be deprived of means of subsistence or fined out of proportion to his fault.
7. That the Court of Common Pleas should be stationary, and that justices should go through each county four times a year to try cases.
8. That all cities and boroughs should retain their ancient liberties.
9. That the privileges of the barons should be respected by the Crown.

John makes War on the Barons.—John had no intention of abiding by the charter. He appealed to the Pope, who declared it null and void. Then John, having collected a strong army of foreign mercenaries, made war on the barons. With fire and sword he devastated their castles and lands; towns and villages were abandoned to the mercy of John's hordes of freebooting mercenaries; England was given up to a carnival of slaughter.

At last the barons applied to the French King for aid. After a promise that his son Louis should be made King of England, Philip sent an army over. Louis, however, lost no time in making himself heartily disliked. Many of the barons withdrew their support when they found that Louis was showing every promise of even out-Heroding John as a tyrant. The war was brought to an abrupt end. John was overtaken by the tide whilst crossing the Lincolnshire Wash, and narrowly escaped drowning; all his baggage and treasure were swept away.

Death.—Shortly after reaching Newark, on October 19, 1216, John died of a fever. He was buried at Worcester.

Family.—By his second wife, Isabella, John had five children: **Henry**, who succeeded him; **Richard**; **Joan**, who married Alexander II. of Scotland; **Eleanor**, who married Simon de Montfort; and **Isabel**, who married Frederick II. of Germany.

Character of John.—We look in vain for any single act of John's life that points to one latent redeeming virtue in his nature. He was faithless alike to friend and foe, treacherous to his own kith and kin; his name became a by-word for flagrant profligacy. Lost to all sense of honour, cruel and grasping, he did not even possess that saving quality of courage which had gone so far to cover many of his brother Richard's faults. John was not without abilities, but he consistently perverted them to serve his own selfish ends, and his death was almost the only benefit this worthless monarch conferred on the country that for eighteen years groaned under his systematic misgovernment.

CHAPTER XV.

HENRY III., 1216-1272.

Accession.—Dislike of Louis caused most of the barons who had opposed John to transfer their allegiance to his son **Henry**. The boy was crowned at Gloucester ten days after his father's death (October, 1216), and **William, Earl of Pembroke**, the wisest statesman of the day, was appointed protector during the king's minority.

Regency of Pembroke.—Pembroke's first act was to call a council, where, on behalf of the King, he confirmed the Great

Charter. The wisdom of this step was evidenced by the almost complete withdrawal of English support from the cause of Louis, who eventually consented to make peace, and left England. The ratification of the Great Charter by the regent was followed by a **charter of forests**, which curtailed the extent of the royal forests, and abolished the death-penalty of deer-slaying. Pembroke died in the third year of his regency.

Regency of Hubert de Burgh.—The administration of affairs was entrusted to the justiciary, **Hubert de Burgh**, whilst the education of the boy-king was placed in the care of Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester, a Poictevin by birth. This man did all he could to thrust difficulties in the way of de Burgh, of whose power he was jealous, and whose earnest aim was to keep the government out of the hands of foreigners. The Archbishop, Stephen Langton, was the firm ally of de Burgh in this policy, and under their vigorous administration the country became gradually restored to order. In 1232 de Burgh fell under the royal displeasure, and des Roches became Henry's favourite and adviser.

Papal Taxes.—In addition to the annual tribute imposed on the kingdom during John's reign, the Pope now levied taxes on the clergy known as **Annates** and **Firstfruits**—that is, the clergy had to pay him a tenth of their yearly income, as well as the whole of the first year's income on an appointment to a living. The Pope tried to impose a tax on the laity, but in this he was unsuccessful. In this way a very bitter feeling sprang up in the minds of the English against the papal authority.

Henry's Misrule.—After the fall of de Burgh, Henry took the control of affairs more directly into his own hands. His administration was a conspicuous failure, but his powers were much more circumscribed than had been those of his predecessors. The steady growth of the influence of **Parliament**, as the great council was beginning to be called, had made itself felt. Parliament held a power over the King that was the direct outcome of Magna Charta: they insisted on the constitutional principle that the will of the people alone must control the public expenditure. Formerly, through the power which the feudal system gave them, Kings had been able to fleece their subjects at will. This power had been crippled by the Great Charter, and Henry found himself unable to levy any taxes without the consent of Parliament. Against these restrictions Henry chafed. His extravagance left him in constant need of money. He had many favourites at court among the

foreigners who had come over to England with his wife, Eleanor of Provence, and on these adventurers the King showered gifts and bounties with reckless prodigality. He also squandered much of the public money in undertaking various useless enterprises. For example:

1. In 1242 the King went to war with France, to regain the provinces lost by his father. He was defeated at **Taillebourg**, and lost the remainder of his possessions in Poictou.
2. In 1254 the King foolishly allowed the Pope to draw him into an enterprise which had for its aim the conquest of Sicily.

The Provisions of Oxford.—Henry's reckless extravagance and submission to the pecuniary exactions of the Pope, the favouritism he showed to foreigners, his frequent violations of provisions of the charter, and general misgovernment—all this had tired the nation out. **Simon de Montfort**, Earl of Leicester, who had married the King's sister, pledged himself to champion the national cause. He placed himself at the head of the barons in their opposition to the arbitrary power of the King. In 1258 de Montfort and a body of the barons, in full armour, wrung from Henry his consent to assemble another Parliament which should draw up plans for a reform of the constitution. Accordingly, a national council was held at Oxford, nicknamed by Henry's partisans the **Mad Parliament**. A committee was appointed, consisting of twenty-four barons, half chosen by the King and half by the nobles, to redress the wrongs of the people. By this committee the ordinances known as the **Provisions of Oxford** were drawn up and approved by Parliament. They were:

1. That four knights should represent the freeholders of each county, and report their grievances to Parliament.
2. That sheriffs should be elected annually.
3. That annual accounts of the public money should be rendered.
4. That Parliament should meet three times a year.

The Civil War.—The whole State underwent an entire change. The appointment of a body of fifteen barons, who were to act as a royal council, was the practical withdrawal of the King's supreme authority. For a time all went well. But jealousy was the forerunner of disunion among the barons. Henry lost no opportunity of turning this weakening of their power to his own advantage. Faithless, as were all his race, Henry appealed to the Pope to absolve him from the oath he had taken to abide by the Provisions of Oxford. This the Pope readily did. Civil war seemed imminent. Henry, however, called in Louis of France to arbitrate between him and his subjects (1264). Louis decided in Henry's favour; his award

was rejected by the nobles, and civil war broke out. Owing to their jealousy of Simon de Montfort, some of the barons sided with the King; but the clergy and the great mass of the people warmly supported de Montfort. The King's forces were utterly defeated at **Lewes** in May, 1264, and a truce was concluded known as the **Mise of Lewes**. The King remained practically a prisoner in de Montfort's hands. The triumph of the reform party was complete.

The First House of Commons.—Hitherto the great national council, composed, as it was, of the nobles and prelates of the realm, had been of the nature of our present House of Lords. It is true that to this council four representative knights had been summoned from each shire in 1254; but it was de Montfort who first grasped the principle that no important class should be left without representation. It was in 1265 that he for the first time summoned from each of certain towns and boroughs two men to represent merchant and trading interests. Deservedly has de Montfort been called the '**Founder of the House of Commons.**'

Fall of de Montfort.—De Montfort was an able and conscientious statesman, but he was not quite proof against the temptations afforded by success. His ambition began to alarm several of his supporters; his arrogance and the growing jealousy of his power alienated many more. Through the connivance of the Earl of Gloucester, Prince Edward escaped from custody; the royalists rallied round him, and at the head of his army Edward attacked de Montfort at **Evesham**, in Worcestershire. De Montfort was slain and his supporters scattered (1265). This ended the civil war. By the **Award of Kenilworth**, a free pardon was offered to all who had fought against the King, on the condition that they returned to their allegiance. Henry was restored to the throne. De Montfort's championship of English liberty had been brief, but his work had not been a failure, for the great principles for which he fought and died did not die with him.

Miscellaneous Events of the Reign:

Among the various improvements which came into use during this reign we may note: The introduction of linen manufacture by some Flemings; the use of coal as a fuel instead of wood, and candles instead of torches; the gradual superseding of thatch by roofing-tiles; the use of leaden water-pipes; the striking of the first gold coins in England; the abolition of trial by ordeal.

Roger Bacon, the philosopher-monk, who invented gunpowder and

magnifying-glasses, lived in this reign, and greatly aided the advance of science.

Westminster Abbey was rebuilt.

Death.—In 1270 Prince Edward joined in the eighth crusade. The King was old and infirm, and the strong government needed by the times was wanting. The absence of the Prince was sorely felt, and Henry wrote to his son urging him to return. Edward hurried home, but before he reached England **Henry** died, after a reign of fifty-six years, on November 16, 1272. He was buried at Westminster.

Family.—The children who survived him were **Edward, Edmund,** and **Margaret,** who married Alexander III. of Scotland.

Character of Henry III.—Henry was a weak rather than a vicious king; the lust, cruelty and gross irreligion which had stained John's life were vices that had not been transmitted to his son. The weakness that was the most pronounced trait in his character left him at the mercy of every impulse and emotion. Lacking decision, the King naturally resorted to favourites; unfortunately, his choice usually inclined to foreigners of questionable character, who humoured him to the top of his bent to serve their own selfish ends.

CHAPTER XVI.

EDWARD I., 1272-1307.

Accession.—**Edward** was in Palestine when his father died, but he was proclaimed King, and until his return the kingdom was placed under a regency. He reached England in 1274, and was crowned at Westminster.

Edward's Parliaments.—His first Parliament was held in 1275 for the reform of many abuses which had sprung up during the last few years of Henry's feeble government. This opening act made Edward very popular, and the promise it held forth of a good government was amply fulfilled. Edward had come to learn, since the days of his hot-blooded youth when his army had left de Montfort dead on the field of battle, that his father's enemy had grasped the true principles of good government. But it was not until 1295 that Edward was able to give them full effect. In that year he summoned a virtually complete Parliament, in which all orders of the State had a voice. The higher clergy and nobles had seats; the shires, towns and boroughs, and lower clergy had their representatives. Its model

has in essential been followed by each successive Parliament up to our own time.

The Conquest of Wales. — The Welsh had long been troublesome neighbours, and Edward determined to conquer this disorderly principality. The refusal of **Llewellyn**, the Welsh prince, to appear at his coronation to do homage for his fief of Wales, afforded Edward his opportunity. At the head of an army, Edward marched into Wales (1277), and compelled the rebel prince to do him homage and surrender the country between Cheshire and the river Conway. In 1282 Wales again revolted. Edward appeared with a powerful force, and Llewellyn was defeated and slain. The conquest of Wales was complete, and in 1284, by the **Statute of Wales**, the principality was formally incorporated with England. The King's infant son was declared **Prince of Wales**, a title which the eldest son of the reigning sovereign has ever since held.

Dispute for the Throne of Scotland. — In 1286 Alexander III., King of Scotland, died, and the crown fell to his grandchild, **Margaret**, the 'Maid of Norway.' Edward betrothed his son to the infant princess, hoping to unite the two crowns. But Margaret died on her voyage from Norway to Scotland, and thirteen claimants appeared for the throne, the two whose claims were the strongest being **John Balliol** and **Robert Bruce**. To avoid a civil war the dispute was referred by consent of the candidates to the decision of Edward, who first insisted that the Scots should acknowledge him as **feudal lord**. He then gave his award in favour of **Balliol**, who was proclaimed King of Scotland.

War with Scotland.—It was not long before Balliol tired of the yoke of vassalage, and when Edward demanded his assistance in a war that had broken out between England and France, the Scottish king refused point-blank. Edward crossed the border, captured Berwick, and inflicted a crushing defeat on the Scots at **Dunbar** (1296). Leaving Earl Warrenne as governor of the Scottish kingdom, Edward returned to England, taking with him the dethroned Balliol, who was committed to the Tower. Edward also brought the regalia and the coronation-stone on which the Scottish Kings were crowned at Scone Castle. Balliol was released after two years, and retired to Normandy, where he died.

William Wallace.—While Edward was engaged in a war with France, the Scots again rebelled, goaded to desperation by the tyranny of their English rulers. The French war had

resulted from trifling causes, and ended in the loss of Guienne, the only English possession in France. In 1298 Philip and Edward made peace. Edward married the French King's sister, and shortly afterwards Guienne was restored to England. When the news reached Edward of the Scottish insurrection, he hastened home from France, collected an army, and marched into Scotland. **William Wallace**, a Scottish knight, whose wife had been brutally murdered by an English governor, had raised the fire of revolt. In September, 1297, this brave patriot had defeated the English at **Cambuskenneth**, the opening battle of the 'Scottish War of Independence.' The arrival of Edward turned the tide of victory. In a battle fought at **Falkirk**, July 22, 1298, the Scots were defeated with great loss. For several years Wallace kept up the struggle, making desultory attacks from mountain fastnesses. But at last treachery delivered him into the hands of Edward. Wallace was executed in London as a traitor (1305).

Robert Bruce.—Through all these disasters the national spirit of the Scots still survived. **Robert Bruce**, son of Balliol's rival, collected an army to make a last fight for independence. Bruce was crowned at Scone by the Countess of Buchan, with whose family lay the hereditary right of crowning the country's kings. Partly Norman by descent, ambition, perhaps, as well as patriotism, determined Bruce's action; but the courage and resolution he displayed in fighting a desperate cause compel our admiration. When the news of Bruce's coronation reached Edward, ailing though he was, the English King hastened with an army to oppose him (1307). He never reached Scotland.

Edward's Legislation.—Edward I. made many improvements in the English law. The most celebrated of his statutes are:

1. The statute of '**Mortmain**,' which prohibited the granting of lands to the Church without the King's permission, 1279.
2. The statute '**De Donis Conditionalibus**,' which allowed the nobles to entail their estates, 1285.
3. '**Quia Emptores**,' which allowed freemen to sell their lands on certain conditions, laid down by their chief lord.

The chief reform of this reign, however, was the statute, 'De Tallagio non Concedendo' (1297). It was only the stern attitude of his subjects, headed by the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk, that forced Edward to consent to this enactment, which was framed in consequence of the many illegal taxes imposed on

the country. This statute, embodied in the **Confirmatio Cartarum**, enacted:

1. No tax should be legal without the consent of Parliament.
2. All seizures of wool, hides, and other merchandise by the Crown were illegal. (This clause was found necessary, as the King had actually resorted to the above arbitrary means of providing money for his wars.)

Expulsion of the Jews.—The condition of the Jews in England was not a very enviable one. They were ill-treated by the people among whom they lived; their goods were accounted by law the property of the Crown, and the king could tax them to any extent he wished. At least, popular feeling ran so high against the Jews, in consequence of the prevalent belief that they clipped and debased the coin of the realm, that Edward banished them from the country (1290).

Death.—Edward died of dysentery near Carlisle, July 7, 1307, whilst on an expedition to Scotland.

Family.—Edward was twice married. His first wife was Eleanor of Castile; nine years after her death he married Margaret, daughter of Philip III. of France. By his first wife he had four sons and seven daughters, and three other children by his second wife.

Character of Edward I.—The strength and manliness of the King won the hearts of his subjects from the first, who felt that Edward had shaken off the traditions of his race, and was in reality an Englishman. He was a prudent statesman, a wise legislator, an energetic reformer, and a good soldier. The precedents established by his less scrupulous predecessors and the exigencies of the time may afford some excuse for his occasional lapses into unconstitutional acts. With all his faults of cruelty, stubbornness, and arrogance, Edward conscientiously did his best for the welfare of his subjects, and well earned the title bestowed on him of 'the greatest of the Plantagenets.'

CHAPTER XVII.

EDWARD II., 1307-1327.

Accession.—Edward II. was proclaimed King at Carlisle, in July, 1307, being at the time of the late King's death on an expedition against Bruce. Disregarding the solemn injunctions laid upon him by his dying father, Edward abandoned the enterprise and returned to England. In the early part of the

following year, he crossed over to Boulogne. There he married **Isabella**, daughter of Philip IV., and did homage for Guienne to the French King. Returning to England he was crowned at Westminster.

Influence of Piers Gaveston.—Before the death of Edward I., **Piers Gaveston**, the son of a Gascon in the King's service, had gained an unbounded ascendancy over the prince's mind. The King banished Gaveston from court, and one of his dying charges to his son was that he should not recall his worthless favourite. But Edward II. disregarded his father's wishes and recalled Gaveston, who was created Earl of Corn wall; the King's niece was given to him in marriage; and during the King's absence in France he was appointed Regent.

Rebellion of the Barons.—If Gaveston had a warm friend in the King, he had arrayed against him a host of bitter enemies. The English nobles saw with increasing anger the high honours and authority with which this vicious foreigner was invested. Nor was the attitude of Gaveston conciliatory. He was at no pains to conceal his insolent contempt for the English. He took delight in levelling shafts of petty ridicule at the nobles, confident in the power of the King's protection. Under the tuition of his frivolous favourite, Edward developed not altogether unsuspected powers of buffoonery—qualities which, however admirable in a professional jester, were very far from being consistent with the dignity of a King. The barons insisted upon the banishment of Gaveston; the King sent him as Lord-Lieutenant to Ireland. The following year he returned, no wiser from his experience. The barons made a firm stand. In 1310 the Parliament compelled Edward to transfer the whole authority of the realm to a chosen council of twenty-one peers, who were called **Ordainers**. Their first act was to banish Gaveston, and make Edward promise never to recall him. With amazing short-sightedness, the foolish King again recalled Gaveston. The barons determined to teach Edward a stern lesson. They took up arms under the leadership of the **Earl of Leicester**, and marched to the North, whither Edward and his favourite had fled. Gaveston fell into their hands and met with scant shrift. The nobles cut his butterfly career short by beheading him on **Blacklow Hill**, near Warwick, June 19, 1312.

War with Scotland.—Meanwhile Bruce was making rapid progress. Most of the strongest fortresses had fallen into his hands; Roxburgh and Perth were stormed and taken, and at last **Stirling** was the only castle that remained in the hands of

the English. Stirling Castle, which had long been besieged, was on the point of surrendering when Edward at last thought of bestirring himself. He marched to the relief of the beleaguered castle with an army 100,000 strong. The English forces, which outnumbered the Scottish army by fully one-half, marched on Bruce, who was encamped at **Bannockburn.** The English walked blindly into a trap laid by the brave Scottish leader, and encountered a crushing defeat, the King himself narrowly escaping (1314). This decisive battle secured for Scotland her independence. Warfare, however, was kept up in a desultory manner until 1323, when Edward, realising that he could not regain the country that his father had conquered, concluded a truce at **Berwick.** Robert Bruce was acknowledged King of Scotland by the English monarch.

The Rise of the Despensers.—After Gaveston's death the next object of Edward's doting favouritism was **Hugh Despenser,** the King's chamberlain. The barons entertained as hearty a detestation of Despenser as of Gaveston before him. A revolt ensued, headed by the **Earl of Lancaster,** and in 1320 Parliament pronounced sentence on Despenser and his father of perpetual banishment and forfeiture of their estates. Edward championed the cause of his favourites, and took up arms against the barons. A battle was fought at **Boroughbridge** in 1322, where Lancaster's forces were defeated, and the earl himself, being taken prisoner, was executed in **Pontefract Castle.**

The Plot of Queen Isabella.—The failure of the barons' revolt had only strengthened the position of the hated favourites. But the Lancastrian party were far from crushed; and before long they found a new ally in Edward's Queen. Hatred of the Despensers, and a guilty attachment for **Roger Mortimer,** a young nobleman of the Lancastrian party, caused Isabella to plan her husband's overthrow. On the pretext of settling a difference that had arisen between Edward and her brother, the French King, Isabella went to France in 1325, taking her son, **Prince Edward,** with her. In France Mortimer joined her. Her long stay caused the King to summon her back. The Queen refused to return until the Despensers were dismissed from court. In September, 1326, she at last returned; with her she brought an army, and landing in Suffolk she summoned all to her standard who wished to see the country freed from the favourites. No one was deceived by this excuse; everyone knew her real object was to dethrone her husband. But

Edward II. had been so successful in winning the hearty dislike of his subjects generally that Isabella did not lack supporters. The King fled to **Bristol**, which was under the command of the elder Despenser. But the garrison mutinied, and the governor was given over to his enemies. Despenser was hanged. The King and young Despenser escaped into Wales, where they were unsuccessful in trying to raise an army. They were captured by the young **Earl of Lancaster**, in Glamorgan, and young Despenser shared his father's fate.

Deposition of Edward.—In January, 1327, Isabella summoned a Parliament, which declared that Edward was incapable of governing his kingdom, and he was compelled to abdicate His son, **Edward**, was placed upon the throne.

Miscellaneous Events of the Reign:

In 1312 the **Knights Templars**, a powerful order of soldier-monks that had arisen during the beginning of the Crusades, were suppressed by **Pope Clement V.** on the ground that their rapidly-growing power was dangerous to the security of Europe.

Under Edward II. the House of Commons first attached petitions to the bills by which subsidies were granted. Bills of Exchange were first introduced into England about this time.

Death.—After his abdication this King without a kingdom was subjected to the vilest indignities. His hour of desperate need brought him no friend. For eight months he was moved by his enemies from castle to castle, and every effort was made to wreck his reason or end his days by deliberate systematic cruelty. The dark fatality that closed his life makes us forget the faults of the sovereign in our pity for the sufferings of the man. On the night of September 20, 1327, a succession of fearful screams were heard within the walls of **Berkeley Keep**, in Gloucestershire. On the following morning the death of the dethroned King was briefly announced. No one dared ask any questions, but the air was full of whispers that hinted at some terrible deed of violence. Little doubt exists that the Queen and Mortimer shared the guilt of secret assassination. No inquiries were made, and the murdered King was quietly buried in the monastery of St. Peter, at Gloucester.

Family.—His children were **Edward**, who succeeded him, **John**, **Joan**, who married David II. of Scotland, and another daughter.

Character of Edward II.—Throughout his life Edward displayed all the traits of a vicious schoolboy. In outward appearance only did this irresolute King resemble his father. If his vices were petty, they were at any rate such as to utterly

unfit him for the government of a great country. In character he was colourless. For good or evil, all his opinions were those of other men. The weakness and indolence that were his especial failings caused him to lean on favourites; and as to flatter his inordinate vanity was the surest road to the royal favour, the men to whom the King left the management of the state were worthless parasites. Marlowe has admirably described Edward as 'the light-brained King.'

CHAPTER XVIII.

EDWARD III., 1327-1377.

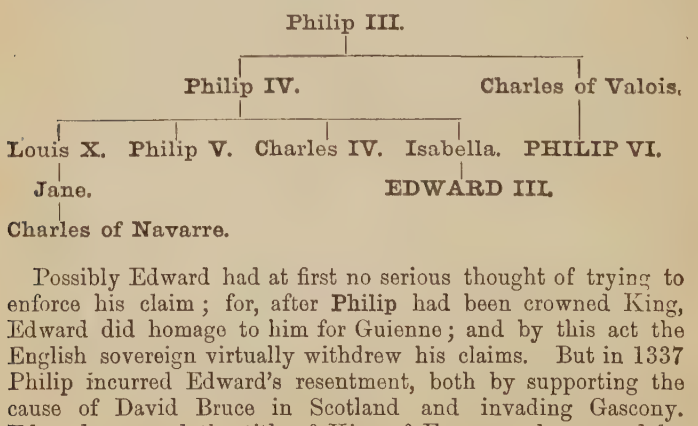
Accession.—Edward III. was crowned during his father's lifetime. As the new King was a minor, a regency with the **Earl of Lancaster** at its head was appointed by Parliament to carry on the government, but in reality the Queen and Mortimer exercised the supreme power.

Scottish Affairs.—The opening of the reign was marked by an incursion of the Scots. An army of 25,000 men under **Robert Bruce** made a foray upon the northern counties. Edward went in person to reduce them to submission, but by the rapidity of their movements and the skill of their tactics the Scots easily eluded the English and crossed the border in safety. **The Treaty of Northampton** was then concluded between the two countries (1328), in which Edward, by the advice of Mortimer, renounced his claim to feudal superiority over Scotland; the regalia also were to be restored. This recognition of Scotland's independence met with general disapproval among the English, and greatly increased the ill-will with which Mortimer was regarded.

Fall of Mortimer.—This arrogant nobleman had given his fellow nobles little cause to love him. Through his instrumentality the King's uncle, **Edmund**, Earl of Kent, had been executed under a false charge of treason, and other peers had been prosecuted. Moreover, Edward chafed under the restraint to which he was subjected. In 1330, when in his eighteenth year, Edward determined to become his own master. By his orders Mortimer was seized in Nottingham Castle, and a Parliament was summoned to pass sentence on him. Mortimer was condemned to expiate his sins, which were many, on a gibbet at Tyburn. His partner in guilt, Queen Isabella, was confined for the rest of her life as a state prisoner in the castle of **Risings**, Norfolk.

Expedition into Scotland.—Robert Bruce died in 1330; the claims of his son, **David**, who was at that time a minor, were disputed by **Edward**, son of **John Balliol**. In order to gain English aid, Balliol promised to recognise the King of England as his feudal lord. Edward III. accordingly lent him his willing support. Balliol was crowned at Scone, but was afterwards driven across the border by Sir Archibald Douglas. Edward invaded Scotland to enforce Balliol's claims, and laid siege to Berwick. The Scots, under Douglas, met with a severe reverse at **Halidon Hill**, and Balliol was acknowledged King. Berwick was taken and annexed to England (1333). Balliol, however, was not to enjoy the supreme authority for long. In 1341 his subjects revolted against him; he was driven from Scotland, and David Bruce was replaced upon the throne.

Beginning of the Hundred Years' War.—On the death of Charles IV. of France, in 1328, **Edward III.** claimed the crown of that country in right of his mother **Isabella**, daughter of Philip IV. Edward had no grounds for this claim. The '**Salic Law**' enacted that no woman could inherit the French throne, and consequently Isabella had no claim. Edward maintained that the right to rule could be transmitted through females to males. In no case, however, was his position tenable. If the right could only descend through males, **Philip of Valois** was clearly heir; if the 'Salic Law' was to be disregarded, there was a prior claimant in **Charles of Navarre**. The following table will make clear the rival claims:



Possibly Edward had at first no serious thought of trying to enforce his claim; for, after **Philip** had been crowned King, Edward did homage to him for Guienne; and by this act the English sovereign virtually withdrew his claims. But in 1337 Philip incurred Edward's resentment, both by supporting the cause of David Bruce in Scotland and invading Gascony. Edward assumed the title of King of France and prepared for

war. During the next hundred years there was no continuous peace between the two countries.

Edward Supported by Parliament.—In, or about, 1333 Parliament was separated into two houses—the **Lords** and the **Commons**. Both were ready to support Edward, and voted him supplies for the war. There were several reasons why they did this, the most important being the protection of commercial interests. The English carried on a large trade with Flanders. The Flemings bought the wool of this country for manufacture into cloth. It was part of the policy of the French King to make Flanders subject to his authority, and intercept this flourishing trade of which he was jealous. Parliament was fully justified in giving its sanction that Edward should fight for the independence of the republic of Flanders; but the cruel and unnecessary war into which Edward entered to enhance his own glory has no shadow of justification.

Opening Events of the War.—Edward at first secured the alliance of various continental sovereigns, and of Jacob von Artaveldt, a great brewer of Ghent, who held over the Flemings almost absolute sway. Flanders was the quarter fixed upon for the opening of hostilities by the English. In 1340 the French were defeated in a great naval battle off **Sluys**, on the Flemish coast. This was the only important event of the opening campaign, and a truce was entered into that lasted two years. By this time Edward had come to the end of his resources. Before Parliament would vote him further supplies, Edward was forced to yield three concessions:

1. That a peer should only be tried by his brother peers assembled in Parliament.
2. That Parliament, which voted supplies, should also have the right to know how the public money was spent.
3. That men in the great offices of State should be responsible to Parliament.

Renewal of Hostilities.—The French having invaded Guienne, Edward, accompanied by his son, the Black Prince, landed at **La Hogue** in Normandy, in the summer of 1346, with a great army. His troops laid waste Normandy, assaulted and captured **Caen**. Edward then marched down the valley of the Seine, his destroying progress marked by the ruins of towns and villages. Near Abbeville Edward found himself intercepted by Philip's troops. Crossing the river Somme, the English army, consisting of 30,000 men, took up its stand near the village of **Crecy**, and awaited the enemy. The French outnumbered the English by four to one; but so deadly was the

destruction wrought by the English archers that at last Philip was compelled to give the order of retreat. This battle proved a disastrous blow to the French; more than 30,000 of their army, including many of noble rank, fell on that fatal day. The hero of the fight was Edward's son, the **Black Prince**, then but in his sixteenth year, who by his gallant bravery 'won his spurs.' The victorious army then marched to Calais. For nearly a year was the city besieged, but the garrison courageously held out under the governorship of **John de Vienne**. At last famine compelled the besieged to open their gates (1347). The French were ordered to leave Calais, which was then peopled with a colony of English. It became a famous trading-port, and remained an English town until the reign of Mary. A truce was then concluded with France.

Scottish Invasion.—Whilst Edward had been warring on the Continent, **David Bruce** of Scotland, as the ally of Philip, invaded England with a large army. **Queen Philippa** raised a small force, which she entrusted to the command of **Lord Percy**. These encountered the invading army at **Neville's Cross**, near Durham, in the autumn of 1346. The Scots were utterly defeated, and the King himself was taken prisoner. In the following year he was ransomed by a payment of 100,000 marks.

The Black Death.—In 1349 a terrible pestilence swept over the north of Asia and Europe with deadly effect. It is estimated that one-third of the inhabitants of Europe perished through it. In this momentous crisis all thoughts of war were forgotten. Labourers became scarce; wide districts fell out of cultivation in consequence. Wages rose to such a height that landlords could not afford to employ labour. To keep wage down Parliament passed two **Statutes of Labourers**, compelling workmen to accept the rate of wages that had been paid before the Plague, and forbidding them to quit the parish in which they lived in search of better paid employment. These enactments caused great discontent among the agricultural population.

Continuation of the War with France.—Edward proposed to abandon his claim to the French throne on condition that the full sovereignty of the Southern provinces was ceded to him. This offer **John**, who had succeeded Philip as King of France, not unnaturally declined to accept, and war broke out again in 1355. The Black Prince commanded the English army, and he devastated the country around Bordeaux. In 1356 the French were signally defeated at **Poictiers**, King John being taken

prisoner. Much stress has been laid on the courtesy shown by the Black Prince to his royal prisoner, by writers forgetful of the sham sentiment that underlay the 'chivalry' of those times. This custom of treating captured enemies who were of gentle birth with courteous consideration was admirable in so far as it went; unfortunately the code of morals of those times did not require that the same quality of mercy should be shown to the common people. The French peasantry suffered the most terrible cruelties from the English during that war of aggrandisement.

The Peace of Bretigny.—In 1360 the '**Great Peace**' was signed at Bretigny, by which Edward gave up his claim to the Crown of France, retaining only **Poictou, Guienne,** and **Calais.** A ransom of three million gold crowns was to be the price of **John's** freedom. This sum John failed to raise.

Loss of the French Provinces.—To the Black Prince was entrusted the government of the English provinces in France. About this time a civil war broke out in Spain. The cruelties of **Pedro,** King of Castile, had caused his subjects to dethrone him. Pedro sought the aid of the English. More or less ignorant of the rights and wrongs of the case, the Black Prince espoused the tyrant's cause. A victory at **Navarette** restored Pedro to the throne and left the English Prince with an exhausted treasury. As Pedro had no intention of paying the expenses that had been incurred in his cause, the debt had to be met by taxation of the French provinces. Charles V., the French King, waited for the first sign of revolt against the oppressive tax; then he took up the cause of the discontented people. The contest was renewed, during which the Black Prince, wasted with disease, was compelled to return to England. The French were triumphant. Bit by bit Edward's dominions in France were lost, until, in 1374, only the towns of Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne remained to the English. Two years later the Black Prince died.

The Results of the War.—For the French peasantry and the English poorer classes the war was alike disastrous. In France the English armies had sacked the villages and towns; the vines had been cut down, and the crops destroyed. In England equal misery prevailed. Whilst the Government was engaged with the anxieties of foreign wars, the nobles took advantage of the disturbed state of affairs to exercise an arbitrary tyranny over their social inferiors. In both countries the enormous expenses of the war had to be met by a ruinous taxation.

Growing Influence of the Commons.—During this reign the power of the Commons was steadily growing. In this reign the Commons, in their struggle against the barons, established:

1. The illegality of raising money without their consent.
2. The necessity that both Houses should give their consent before any law was altered.
3. The right of the Commons to inquire into public abuses and to impeach public councillors (first exercised in the 'Good Parliament,' 1376).

Chief Parliamentary Reforms:

1. **The Statute of Treasons** defined the acts which constitute high treason, and limited this crime to seven offences (1352).
2. **The Statute of Provisors**, the outcome of the indignation at papal encroachments, declared it an offence to procure from the Pope a nomination to a benefice (1353).
3. A statute **forbidding purveyance**, except for the personal wants of King or Queen. 'Purveyance' was the right exercised by the King, when on a journey, of forcing the people to provide for the needs of his household at a nominal price. This right had been so much abused that the reform was necessary.

John Wycliffe.—The clergy had become very unpopular, owing to their occupation of most of the high offices of the State. They were an exceedingly wealthy body, and the people grumbled that they contributed little or nothing to the general good. Their worldliness was assailed by John Wycliffe, Rector of Lutterworth, who declared that the clergy should lead a hard and self-denying life. Wycliffe's exposure of clerical abuses made him bitter enemies amongst the clergy. Wycliffe's followers were known as **Lollards.**

Death.—A year after the death of his son, the Black Prince, Edward III. died at **Shene**, near Richmond, after a reign of fifty years. The old warrior's end was inglorious and sad. He had fallen under the influence of evil counsellors; the Commons, opposed to a King whom they had ceased to respect, were wresting the power from his failing grip. He was deserted at the last by even those worthless favourites whose gratitude he deserved, and one priest alone watched by the bedside till the end. Edward was buried at Westminster (1377).

Family.—Edward married Philippa of Hainault, by whom he had eleven children, including **the Black Prince, Lionel,** Duke of Clarence; **John of Gaunt,** Duke of Lancaster; **Edmund,** Duke of York; and **Thomas,** Duke of Gloucester.

Character of Edward III.—This King never won the love of his subjects, and their admiration for his courage and prowess in battle was largely tempered by the reflection that his conquests had to be dearly paid for by an overtaxed country. Neither must the brilliance of his victories make us overlook the fact that the war into which this King plunged the country

was purposeless and wicked—a war of aggression that recoiled on its promoters. He was selfish and extravagant; his later years were stained by licentiousness, and most of the reforms of the reign were concessions made by him as the price of further supplies. In one thing Edward is deserving of praise—his protection of commerce and promotion of industries.

CHAPTER XIX.

RICHARD II., 1377-1399.

Accession.—Richard II., son of the Black Prince, was only eleven years old when he succeeded his grandfather. His coronation took place at Westminster Abbey in July, 1377. During the King's minority the government was conducted by a **council of twelve.** Nominally, Richard's uncles were excluded; actually, they exercised a very potent influence in the administration.

Discontent of the Peasantry. — The war with France was still going on. Foreign disasters had involved the country in expenses which had emptied the treasury, and for a long time a feeling of discontent had been growing in the country among the lower orders of the people. Serfdom still existed in England. The serfs were of two classes:

1. **Villeins regardant,** compelled to work on the estates where they were born, notwithstanding any change of ownership.
2. **Villeins in gross,** who were the absolute property of the lord, and who might be sold in open market.

The state of villeinage had been growing less burdensome until the Black Death. The demands of the peasantry for increased wages caused the landlords to again enforce their rights over the villeins, which they were ceasing to exercise. The peasants demanded emancipation, and this was the real cause that led to the insurrection of 1381, which was precipitated by the action of **Wat Tyler.**

Wat Tyler's Insurrection.—To meet the war expenses, Parliament had recourse to a new imposition. This took the form of a manifestly unjust **poll-tax** of one shilling, levied on every person above the age of fifteen. The general resentment felt against this tax, which fell far more heavily on the poor than on the rich, found its first open expression in Kent. A blacksmith known as Wat Tyler struck a tax-gatherer dead. This was the signal for an outbreak. The men of the eastern counties flew to arms. Under the leadership of **Tyler,** one

Jack Straw, a thresher, and a crazy priest named John Ball, the insurgents, who mustered 100,000 strong, marched upon London. Carried away by the revolutionary harangues of their leaders, these men, who had the inherited wrongs of centuries to avenge, let their passions run riot far beyond discretion. After committing terrible excesses, the mob was met at Smithfield by the young King and some attendant nobles. During the angry conference Walworth, the Lord Mayor, fearing that Tyler meditated an attack on Richard, at once slew the rebel leader. It was only the resolute presence of mind shown by the King that prevented a fierce retaliation from the insurgent crowd. Richard rode towards them, and promised to listen to their demands. These were:

1. The abolition of serfdom.
2. A fixed rent on land of fourpence an acre.
3. Full liberty to buy and sell in all fairs and markets.
4. A general pardon.

Richard at once promised that these demands should be granted. His promises were never fulfilled, and within three weeks fifteen thousand of the rebels were hanged.

Scottish Invasion.—In 1385 the Scots, as allies of France, crossed the border and ravaged the northern counties. Richard, in return, led an army into Scotland and penetrated the country as far as Aberdeen, burning Edinburgh and other cities. For some years warfare was kept up on the border, and in 1388 a fierce battle took place at Otterbourne, where Douglas of Scotland and Sir Henry Percy of Northumberland met. Douglas fell in the fight, but victory rested with the Scots, and Percy, known as Hotspur, was taken prisoner. This battle has been commemorated in the famous old Border-ballad, 'Chevy Chase.'

Richard's Government.—During the period of the regency two parties had sprung up at Court. These were: the party of the King's favourite ministers, chief of whom was Michael de la Pole, and the party of the Duke of Gloucester, Richard's uncle, who was ambitious of making himself head of the Government. Michael Pole, the Chancellor, was a wise statesman, who advocated a policy of peace. But the nobles who supported Gloucester had an interest in the continuance of the war, and as the indolence and extravagance of most of Richard's pleasure-seeking favourites were very displeasing to the English, Gloucester found a good point of attack. By appealing to Parliament, Gloucester obtained Pole's dismissal; the King subsequently recalled him. Glouceste and other powerful nobles took up arms, and in a battle at Radcot Bridge (in Oxfordshire), the King's friends were defeated (1387). The next Parliament that

met was dominated by Gloucester and his party. This was called the **Merciless Parliament.** Gloucester and other peers came forward as lords appellant or accusers, of the King's favourites, whom they charged with treason. Some were executed and the rest banished (1388). But the next year Richard, who had come of age, took the government into his own hands, and turned Gloucester out of the council. For a time two people exercised a beneficial restraining influence over the King: his first wife, **Anne of Bohemia,** and his uncle, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. Lancaster had returned to England in 1389, after an absence of some years in Spain, where he had unsuccessfully contested the crown of Castile, which he claimed through his wife. At the earlier part of the reign Lancaster had been suspected of designs on the English throne. If so, he had by now abandoned them, and for the rest of his life he did his best to give conscientious support to Richard. For a few years all went well; the government was firm; England was kept at peace both at home and abroad. In 1393 the important statute of **Præmunire** was enacted by the indirect influence of the Lollards for the purpose of still further restraining the Pope's authority in this kingdom. In 1394 'good Queen Anne' died, and two years later Richard married **Isabella,** the French King's sister; a truce was entered into with France for twenty-five years (1396).

Causes of Richard's Unpopularity.—There were many reasons why Richard was unpopular. A strong party, headed by his uncle, Gloucester, were working against him, whom the treaty with France and the peace-policy of the King still further incensed. Rich and poor grumbled at the heavy taxation. The lower orders were bitter against the King for failing to make good his promises of abolishing serfdom; the middle classes viewed with suspicion his extravagance and love of display, his lack of judgment in his choice of favourites, and his method of raising large sums of money by borrowing; the clergy were wroth with him because of his leniency towards the Lollards. This ill-feeling, and the attempts of his enemies to thwart him at every turn, filled Richard with a determination to free himself from his ill-wishers. In 1397, he caused **Gloucester** to be suddenly arrested and sent to Calais, where he was secretly put to death; **Arundel** was executed; **Warwick** was imprisoned; the **Archbishop of Canterbury** was sent into exile. Then Richard called a Parliament, and forced them into a repeal of all acts passed by the 'Merciless Parliament,' and a grant to the King of custom-duties for life.

This was the crisis of Richard's history. He was now absolute. By this seizure of despotic power Richard had ensured his certain downfall.

Richard's Fall.—The King had now only two formidable opponents. These were his cousin, the Duke of Hereford, John of Gaunt's son, and the Duke of Norfolk. With arbitrary injustice Richard suddenly sent both these men into banishment. A more foolish act he could not have done. A strong wave of discontent was sweeping over the country, in consequence of the King's assumption of absolute power and the harsh injustice which was beginning to characterize his acts. The death of John of Gaunt afforded Richard the opportunity of committing his crowning act of folly. He confiscated the estates of the new Duke of Lancaster, and made his cousin's banishment perpetual. This was a fatal step, for young Lancaster had more friends by far than the King himself. At this time a disturbance occurred in Ireland; Richard went to quell it. During his absence, Henry Bolingbroke, the new Duke of Lancaster, landed at **Ravenspur**, to claim (as he said) his rights. He found that he carried the sympathy of the nation, and he boldly claimed the crown on the ground of Richard's misrule. Without fighting, Henry's cause was won. Richard was taken prisoner and conveyed to the Tower, where he was forced to sign his abdication in favour of his cousin. Henry immediately summoned a Parliament at Westminster, which solemnly declared the King to be unfit to govern, and deposed him, September 29, 1399.

Death.—The first act of Henry was to imprison the dethroned King; the failure of a conspiracy to restore him brought about his death. Richard was murdered secretly in **Pontefract Castle**, in 1400. He died childless.

Character of Richard II.—Richard has been compared with Edward II., but the comparison is unjust. Edward was a weak-minded and worthless idler, who treated the government of England as a joke. Richard was a man of ability, and, granting his wasteful extravagance and almost childish love of display, he was not without good qualities. For eight years after he came of age his rule was vigorous and more or less just. He consistently pursued a policy of peace. When we look at the later years of his reign, marred by acts of violence, we must not be too hasty to condemn the man—who, surrounded by enemies who threw every difficulty in his way, and represented his every action in its worst light, became soured, and allowed the darker side of his nature to master him. Richard was not a good King, but he possessed the latent possibilities that, had circumstances been different, might have made him one.

THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

CONTINUED.

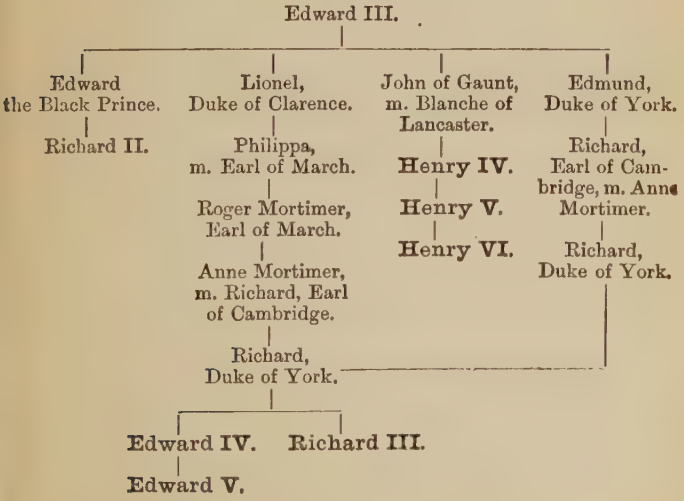
THE YORKIST AND LANCASTRIAN KINGS.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.		HOUSE OF YORK.	
Henry IV.	1399	Edward IV.	1461
Henry V.	1413	Edward V.	1483
Henry VI.	1422	Richard III.	1483

GENEALOGY

OF

THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER.



CHAPTER XX.

HENRY IV. (First of the Lancastrian Kings), 1399-1413.

Accession.—**Henry IV.** was crowned at Westminster, October 13, 1399. He was without hereditary right to the throne, and possessed it only by virtue of a parliamentary settlement. According to the law of inheritance, **Edmund**, Earl of March, a lad of seven, was the heir, owing to his descent from an elder branch of the House of Plantagenet. This fact subsequently led to the Wars of the Roses.

Early Troubles of the Reign. — Throughout his reign Henry never forgot that he was a usurper, and was haunted by the dread of losing the crown; accordingly, he placed his young rival, Edmund, in confinement. Shortly after his coronation, a plot was discovered which had for its purpose the restoration of Richard. The Earls of **Kent**, **Salisbury** and **Huntingdon** were, with many others in the conspiracy, executed. Thus at the outset Henry found himself beset by difficulties; and not only had he enemies to defeat, but also friends to please. The nobles and the clergy had been mainly instrumental in securing for him the throne. Their motives were by no means disinterested. In return, the nobles wanted a renewal of the war, and their dissatisfaction was great when Henry, feeling that his position was still insecure, refused. The demands of the clergy, however, he gratified. In accordance with their wishes, and possibly his own, Henry allowed Parliament to enact the savage statute, '**De Heretico Comburendo**' (1401), whereby ecclesiastical courts were able to convict Lollards of 'heresy,' and to hand over to the civil power those who refused to recant, to be burnt at the stake. The first victim was a clergyman named **William Sawtree.**

Rebellion of Glendower.—In 1402 a Scottish invasion under Earl Douglas had resulted in the defeat of the Highlanders at **Homildon Hill** by the Percies of Northumberland. Douglas and others of the Scottish nobility were taken prisoners. To the indignation of the Percies, the King forbade them to ransom any of their prisoners, and at the same time he refused to repay what they had spent in warfare on his behalf. The Welsh were at this time in insurrection under **Owen Glendower**, who traced his descent from Llewellyn, the last native Prince of

Wales. Glendower had been esquire to Richard II., and on the deposition of his master he retired to his estates beyond the Severn. These he found had been seized by Lord Grey de Ruthyn. He appealed for redress to the English Government. His appeal was laughed at. Glendower raised the standard of rebellion; the Welsh flocked to join him, and against the insurgent army, secure amid the mountain retreats, Henry led his forces in vain. On the advice of **Scrope**, Archbishop of York, the Percies allied themselves with Glendower. The younger Percy—**Harry Hotspur**—marched with an army to join the Welsh; but he was intercepted by the royal troops, and a desperate battle was fought at **Shrewsbury**. Hotspur was slain, and his fall decided the issue. The royalists were victorious, though their own loss was very great (July 21, 1403). Glendower still held out, and for many years maintained a desultory warfare from the rocky fastnesses of his country.

Last Rebellion of Northumberland.—The elder **Percy** had received the King's pardon since the battle of Shrewsbury, where his son fell, but he cherished a fierce resentment against Henry. In 1405 he entered into a plot with **Scrope** and the **Earl of Nottingham** to depose the King. But the conspiracy failed, and Northumberland had to fly into Scotland; the two other leaders were taken and beheaded. Three years later Earl Percy invaded the northern counties; but he was defeated and slain by the Sheriff of Yorkshire at **Bramham Moor**, near Tadcaster (1408).

Foreign Affairs.—Both in relation to France and Scotland circumstances did much to help Henry. In 1407 **James**, eldest son of **Robert III.** of Scotland, when on his way to France, where he was being educated, was seized off Flamborough Head, and detained prisoner in England for eighteen years, although there was a truce between the two countries. This act of treachery gave Henry a good deal of power in Scotland. In France the government was distracted by the struggle between the rival houses of Orleans and Burgundy. To serve his own ends, Henry assisted each side in turn, and thus kept France too busily engaged to think of troubling England.

The Growing Power of the Commons. — One great benefit to the country arose from Henry's usurpation—he was compelled to rule constitutionally. As his title to the accession rested on the consent of Parliament, the King dared not but act more or less in accordance with their wishes. In this way the power of the House of Commons was considerably increased.

The chief concessions gained by the members of the Commons were :

1. The exclusive right of originating money grants.
2. Freedom of debate.
3. Immunity from arrest.

Death.—Henry died from an epileptic fit at Westminster on March 20, 1413. He was buried at Canterbury.

Family.—Henry married twice: (1) Mary of Hereford, and (2) Jane of Navarre. His children were: **Henry**, his successor; **Thomas**, Duke of Clarence; **John**, Duke of Bedford; **Humphrey**, Duke of Gloucester.

Character of Henry IV.—Henry was a man of courage and foresight. This is proved by his success in crushing opposition, and reducing the country to order, in spite of the plots of his enemies. But he was unscrupulous in gaining his ends, and stern in punishing his enemies. Nothing can justify his cruelties to the Lollards. It is difficult to judge of Henry's personal abilities as a ruler, so greatly was he kept in check by Parliament.

CHAPTER XXI.

HENRY V., 1413-1422.

Accession.—**Henry V.** was crowned at Westminster in April, 1413. Before his accession Henry had led a wild and dissipated life; but as soon as he became King he dismissed his former boon companions, and devoted himself to his new duties. The opening acts of his reign promised well: he released his rival, the young Earl of March, and restored to Hotspur's son the lands and honours of the Northumberlands.

Persecution of the Lollards.—Henry's next act was far less creditable. **Arundel**, the Archbishop of Canterbury, was bent upon the extermination of the Lollards. He persuaded the King that the teachings of Wycliffe's followers were not only heretical, but also a source of danger to the State. The most influential man among the Lollards was **Sir John Oldcastle**, otherwise Lord Cobham, a brave soldier and a man of untarnished reputation. Cobham had a bitter enemy in Arundel, whose hatred of his opinions was as hearty as his jealousy of the man. Henry vainly endeavoured to make this staunch Lollard recant; then he abandoned him to his ecclesiastical enemies. Cobham was sentenced to death. However, before

the day appointed for his execution, he contrived to escape from his confinement in the Tower. Rumour arose that Cobham was massing the Lollards to murder the King and overawe the Government. Hearing by a side-wind that these men really were planning a midnight meeting in St. Giles's Fields, Henry, accompanied by his guards, marched to the rendezvous. Some fifty men or so were captured and executed. Cobham fled to Wales, where he lay in hiding for four years; he was eventually captured, and executed by being burnt slowly to death.

Renewal of the French War.—France at this time was in a state of internal disunion. The King, Charles VI., had lost his reason, and a dispute concerning the regency embroiled the country in civil strife between three factions: the houses of Orleans and Burgundy, and the party advocating the claims of the King's son. Henry's insatiable ambition fired him with desire of the conquest which this opportunity seemed to offer. He revived the baseless claim of Edward III. to the French crown. His claim being rejected, Henry prepared for war. At this juncture a plot to place the **Earl of March** on the throne was discovered (1415). Its promoters—**Lord Scrope, Sir Thomas Grey,** and the **Earl of Cambridge**—were at once seized and executed. Then Henry set sail, leaving the Duke of Bedford as regent. The English army, numbering 30,000 men, landed at **Harfleur** (Havre), which was immediately invested. It was taken after a siege of five weeks, but at the loss of two-thirds of the English forces, whose ranks had been thinned by disease. Too proud to return, Henry marched with the remnants of his army towards Calais. At **Agincourt**, in Picardy, his advance was blocked by the French army, which was more than four times the size of his own. Outnumbered though they were by fearful odds, the English determined to rely on the hazard of battle. The memory of Crecy and Poictiers was green in their hearts; those former victories had made them believe they were invincible. The English bowmen, protected by a palisade of strong stakes, opened the attack. Their deadly arrows threw the enemy's cavalry into wild disorder. Slinging their bows across their shoulders, the archers drew their swords and axes, and with desperate valour hurled themselves upon the French, Henry fighting with them in the thickest of the fray. For three hours the battle continued. When the day was won, the French had lost 10,000 men, and 14,000 more were taken prisoners. The loss of the English was 1,600 men. Henry then returned to England, where his victory had aroused the wildest enthusiasm. Parliament voted him a

revenue for life of certain customs, as well as large sums for the carrying on of the war. But, in return, the Commons obtained the concession—an important one in the history of constitutional progress—that the King should not alter the terms of any new laws which, when brought before his notice by the customary petition, he should agree to enact.

Treaty of Troyes.—For a short time there was an interval of peace. But Henry had no thought of abandoning his enterprise against France; he was making preparations for a further invasion. He built some ships of war, and these may be regarded as **the beginning of a permanent navy**, for until this time merchant vessels had been laid under requisition when ships were wanted for royal service. In 1417, Henry again set sail for France. Fortress after fortress fell before him. On his victorious march he captured Caen, Bayeux, and Falaise. For six months the capital, **Rouen,** held out with the utmost bravery. At last starvation forced the city to capitulate; and Normandy was in the power of those whom three and a half centuries ago she had conquered. At this crisis, when the French were thinking of patching up their internal quarrels to combine against a common foe, the murder of the **Duke of Burgundy** by the partisans of the Dauphin caused the Burgundians to throw in their lot with the English King. The son of the murdered man, athirst for revenge, offered to make peace with the English on Henry's terms. In 1420 a treaty was signed at **Troyes,** the conditions of which were:

1. That Henry should receive in marriage Catherine, daughter of the French King.
2. That Henry should be regent during the lifetime of the imbecile Charles VI.
3. That Henry should succeed to the crown of France on the death of Charles.

Henry at once married the French Princess, **Catherine of Valois,** and took up his residence in Paris. The Dauphin still continued the struggle. Accordingly Henry returned to England to procure fresh reinforcements, leaving his brother, the **Duke of Clarence,** to conduct the war. During Henry's absence in England, the Dauphin, aided by the Scots, defeated the English at **Beaugé,** and in this battle Clarence was slain (1421). Henry hurried back and laid siege to **Meaux,** which was captured after seven months' resistance (May, 1422). All France north of the Loire, with the exception of Maine and Anjou, was now under Henry's sway.

Death.—In the midst of his successes, Henry was seized

with an illness that baffled the medical skill of those times. He died at Vincennes, near Paris, on August 31, 1422. His body was brought to England and buried in Westminster Abbey.

Family.—By his wife Catherine Henry had one son, a child but a few months old at the time of his father's death, who bore his name. Henry's widow afterwards married **Owen Tudor**, a Welsh gentleman of good descent, whose grandson was to found the Tudor dynasty.

Character of Henry V.—The brilliance of Henry's martial career blinded the people of his time, even as it has blinded many later historians, to the defects of his character. Henry was a great warrior; but his victories were won in a war prosecuted solely to gratify his boundless ambition, which cost England much of her bravest blood. Moreover, such a war could not fail to sow a bitter crop of evils that future generations had to reap. As a ruler Henry possessed marked ability. This is evidenced by the good government he set up in the lands that he conquered in France, and his power of restraining lawlessness and plundering amongst his troops. His frank, open manner won him many friends; but he left on record many acts which point only too clearly to a hard and cruel side in his nature.

CHAPTER XXII.

HENRY VI., 1422-1461.

Accession.—**Henry VI.** was only nine months old when he came to the throne. A council of regency was appointed by Parliament, presided over by the elder of the King's uncles, the **Duke of Bedford**, and during his absence in France his brother, the **Duke of Gloucester**, was made Lord Protector of England. The mad French King died six weeks after his son-in-law, Henry V., and his crown by the Treaty of Troyes descended to the child-monarch of England. Accordingly Henry VI. was proclaimed King of France, a title contested by the Dauphin, who caused himself to be proclaimed **King Charles VII.**

English Successes in France.—As the cause of the Dauphin was supported in the central and southern provinces, and as, in fact, all the sympathy of the French nation was on his side, Henry VI. was little more than King in name only. Bedford, the Regent, set himself the task of crushing the opposition to the English King. Aided by the Duke of Burgundy,

the English arms for a time carried all before them. Two battles, **Crevant** (1423) and **Verneuil** (1424), drove Charles to the south of the river Loire. To further strengthen his cause by breaking the alliance between the Scots and the French, Bedford secured the release of **James**, King of Scotland, who had been held in captivity in England since the reign of Henry IV. In 1428 Bedford determined to carry operations into the enemy's stronghold beyond the Loire. A successful invasion, however, of these dominions was not possible whilst the town of **Orleans** on the north side of the river held out for Charles. Orleans was invested by the English. During the progress of the siege a battle took place at Rouvrai, where a body of French cavalry, endeavouring to intercept English supplies (partly consisting of salted herrings), were defeated by Sir John Fastolf (February 12, 1429). The French completely lost heart at this last disaster. Charles saw that the fall of Orleans was inevitable, and looked upon his cause as lost. But at this crisis an unexpected deliverer appeared to turn the tide of battle.

Joan Darc.—A strange figure this—the woman who flashes meteor-like through the scenes of history, at this crucial moment when France's fate was trembling in the balance. Far away in a little eastern French village a peasant girl named **Joan Darc** was brooding over the horrors that had befallen her country from the cruel war. The needs of suffering France filled her heart with an ardent pity, and her deeply religious nature inspired her with the lofty, unselfish longing to save her countrymen. She fancied divine voices urged her on, and, obtaining an interview with Charles, she told him that Heaven had sent her to be the saviour of her country. Charles saw that the girl would infect his men with her own enthusiasm, and entrusted Joan with the command of a detachment. Her example fired the disheartened soldiers with new courage. Clad in armour she rode to battle ; the English were driven from the walls, and the siege of Orleans was raised (May 8, 1429). Victory followed victory ; under her command the French arms were invincible. Within less than three months Charles VII. was crowned at Rheims.

The Loss of France.—Joan Darc's career was brief; her untimely fate reflects as much discredit on the French as on the English. Jealous of her fame, the officers placed her in a dangerous part of a fight at Compiègne ; she was taken prisoner and handed over to the English Regent. Charles, with unpardonable treachery, made no effort to ransom the woman who

had won his cause. Twelve months later the English burned her in the market-place of Rouen. This act of cruelty recoiled on the perpetrators. The fate of Joan Darc kindled anew the courage of her countrymen. Step by step the invaders were beaten back. A congress was held at **Arras** in 1435 to arrange a peace, but nothing resulted from it. The withdrawal of the Duke of Burgundy from his alliance with England and the death of Bedford still further weakened the English cause. The French were everywhere triumphant. Finally the English sustained a crushing defeat at **Chatillon**, where the Earl of Shrewsbury was slain (1453). The invaders were driven out of the kingdom, with only Calais remaining to them. The Hundred Years' War was at an end.

Government at Home.—Henry VI. was absolutely incapable of governing, and the control of affairs rested in the hands of **Humphrey**, Duke of Gloucester, and **Cardinal Beaufort**, between whom the strongest rivalry existed. The marriage of Henry with **Margaret of Anjou** (1445) strengthened Beaufort's party, who advocated a peace policy. Gloucester was arrested on a charge of treason, and was secretly murdered in prison; six weeks later Beaufort died. The **Duke of Suffolk**, who had brought about Henry's marriage, now shared with Margaret the chief power in the realm. During these quarrels the country was in a state of terrible disorder. The constant demands for more money and more men for the prosecution of the war caused great discontent. As usual, the nobles seized the opportunity afforded by the misgovernment to act without the slightest regard for law. The discontent of the nation showed itself by clamouring for vengeance on Suffolk, perhaps the best-hated man in England, who, it was said, had not only instigated the murder of 'Good Duke Humphrey,' but also by intentional mismanagement of the war had brought about the loss of the French provinces. The feeling against Suffolk was so strong that the Commons impeached him on three charges:

1. Of having given up Maine (which Suffolk surrendered to bring about the marriage of the King with Margaret).
2. Of having betrayed secrets to the French.
3. Of scheming to depose Henry in favour of his own son.

In order to save Suffolk, the King banished him for five years. But his enemies were in no mind to let the minister escape so lightly. Whilst on his way to Calais, the ship was intercepted and boarded, and Suffolk was beheaded (1450).

Cade's Rebellion.—Immediately after the death of Suffolk a rebellion broke out in Kent, caused partly by the general

discontent, but more especially by the rumour that the King was going to punish the men of Kent for Suffolk's murder. The insurrection was headed by **Jack Cade**, an Irishman, who gave out that he was a cousin of the Duke of York. Twenty thousand men flocked to his standard. The rebel army marched to Blackheath, and there issued a proclamation of their grievances. They demanded:

1. The removal of the King's ministers and a reform in the administration.
2. The repeal of the 'Statute of Labourers.'
3. The abolition of the extortions of the sheriffs.
4. Freedom of county elections.

Having defeated the King's forces at **Sevenoaks**, Cade marched upon London; Henry fled to Kenilworth. At first the sympathies of the citizens were enlisted; but when the insurgents began to plunder, the Londoners rose in arms and drove Cade from the city. A free pardon officially offered to all who dispersed to their homes left Cade almost without a follower. He retreated into Sussex, where he was slain.

Legislation under Henry VI.—The only important Act of Parliament during this reign was a **statute limiting the franchise** (1430). The right of voting for the election of members of Parliament was restricted to those who possessed freeholds to the annual value of forty shillings. Mention must be made of an important legislative reform. The Commons, instead of 'petitioning,' as hitherto, now presented **Bills**, which had to be accepted or rejected **in entirety** by the King, and which, on receiving the assent of the Lords and the Crown, became law.

The Wars of the Roses begin.—After the death of Suffolk, the **Duke of Somerset** became the King's chief adviser. This was displeasing to the nation generally, and especially to **Richard, Duke of York**, the heir-presumptive to the throne, who desired a share in the government. In 1453 the birth of a prince dashed Richard's hopes of a peaceful succession; but when, soon after, the King became insane, the disappointed man found himself strong enough to wreak his spite on Somerset, whom he caused to be dismissed from office. Richard of York then induced Parliament to appoint him Protector. On Henry's recovery in the following year Richard was dismissed, and Somerset reinstated in the royal favour. Richard levied an army to enforce the removal of Somerset. The King took up arms on behalf of his favourite, and civil war began. This struggle between the house of York (whose ensign was a white

rose) and the house of Lancaster (whose ensign was a red one) lasted for thirty years. At the end of these 'Wars of the Roses' **Feudalism** had disappeared in England. During this reign there were six important battles fought between the Yorkists and the Lancastrians, into which two factions the kingdom gradually separated. These were the battles of the Roses during this reign:

The First Battle.—An encounter took place at **St. Albans** (1455) between the King's troops and those of York, the latter being joined by the Earls of **Warwick, Salisbury,** and others. In this battle Somerset was killed, and the King taken prisoner. A pretence of reconciliation followed; the King was released.

Bloreheath (1459).—This battle took place in Staffordshire, between the King's forces, under **Lord Audley,** and the Yorkists. Audley was slain, and his men routed. But as the victorious army was marching to join the Duke of York at **Ludlow,** it was again attacked by the Lancastrians; and as the Marshal of the Yorkists deserted with his men to the King, Richard was compelled to withdraw to Ireland.

Northampton (1460).—The Earl of Warwick gained a great victory over the Lancastrians at Northampton. The King was taken prisoner, and Margaret and her son escaped to Scotland. The Duke of York now laid claim to the crown. Parliament declared in favour of Richard, and decided that Henry was to retain his title for life, but that on his death the claims of the infant prince were to be passed over in favour of the Duke of York.

Wakefield (1460).—Incensed at this arrangement, Queen Margaret returned from Scotland at the head of a formidable army, and encountered the Yorkists at Wakefield. The Duke of York was defeated and slain, and his body treated with the utmost indignity.

Mortimer's Cross (1461).—Edward, **Earl of March,** York's eldest son, advanced with an army to avenge his father, and defeated the Lancastrians at Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire.

Second Battle of St. Albans (1461).—Whilst marching to London, Margaret encountered the Earl of Warwick, whom she defeated. This victory restored the captive King to his friends. Yet the Yorkist cause was not lost. The citizens of London closed their gates to her; and, as the united forces of the Earl of March and Warwick were marching to London, Margaret was compelled to retreat to the North.

Edward, Earl of March, entered the capital in triumph, and was proclaimed King by the Commons, under the title of Edward IV.

Death.—Ten years after his deposition, Henry was found dead in the Tower (May 22, 1471). The cause of his death is uncertain. With him ended the dynasty of the House of Lancaster.

Family.—By his wife, Margaret of Anjou, Henry had one son, **Edward,** who was afterwards murdered by the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester.

Character of Henry VI.—Weak in body, in mind a cripple, Henry of Windsor had none of the qualities that made a King. As a man he possessed a lovable nature, and a too trustful disposition. Throughout his life he was merciful and forgiving. Shakespeare describes him as 'famed for mildness, peace, and prayer.' He has left behind him two monuments to his memory that claim our respect, in the school of **Eton** and in **King's College, Cambridge.**

CHAPTER XXIII.

EDWARD IV. (First of the Yorkist Kings), 1461-1483.

Accession.—**Edward IV.** was nineteen years old when he was crowned at Westminster (June 29, 1461). Parliament recognised his title to the throne by hereditary descent from Lionel, third son of Edward III., and Henry VI. was pronounced a usurper. The formal coronation took place after the battle of **Towton.**

The Battle of Towton (1461).—The deposed King had still plenty of loyal adherents in the North, where Margaret had an army of 60,000 men. Edward and Warwick marched against them, and a great battle was fought at Towton, near Tadcaster, in which the Lancastrians met with an overwhelming defeat. Margaret, with her husband and son, fled into Scotland.

Hedgeley Moor and Hexham (1464).—Margaret's spirit was not crushed. Again she reanimated the broken Lancastrian ranks by her courage, and, aided by the Scots and the French, she faced her enemies first at Hedgeley Moor, in Northumberland, and three weeks later at Hexham. In both battles she was defeated. Margaret and her son escaped to Flanders, and ultimately took refuge at the French King's court. Henry fell into the hands of his enemies, and was imprisoned in the Tower.

Edward's Quarrel with Warwick.—In 1464 the Earl of Warwick went over to France to arrange a match between the sister of the French Queen and Edward, the nation being desirous of an alliance with France. During Warwick's absence, however, the King contracted a secret marriage with **Elizabeth,** daughter of **Sir Richard Woodville,** and widow of Sir John Grey. This hasty marriage gave great offence to the

King's brothers and the Earl of Warwick. The indignation of the latter knew no bounds when he saw that all the highest places at Court had been usurped by the Queen's relations. '**The Kingmaker**,' as Warwick is known in history, now began to scheme for Edward's downfall. In 1469 he married his daughter Isabel to Edward's brother, George, Duke of Clarence; by this stroke of policy he caused a breach between the King and Clarence. In 1469 an insurrection was raised among the men of Kent with such success that at **Edgecote**, near Banbury, the royal forces were worsted, and the Queen's father, now **Earl Rivers**, and brother were seized and put to death. In the spring of the following year a new insurrection broke out in Lincolnshire, which, however, the King easily crushed. Warwick and Clarence, who had instigated the rebellion, were proclaimed traitors, and fled to the court of **Louis XI.** of France.

Triumph of the Kingmaker.—In France Warwick met Margaret of Anjou. Bitter though the enmity between them had been, their common hatred of Edward knit them into firm alliance. The **Treaty of Amboise** was signed, by which Warwick pledged himself to restore Henry VI. to the throne. To strengthen the bond between them, it was arranged that Margaret's son, **Edward**, should marry Warwick's second daughter, Anne Neville. The Kingmaker and Clarence returned to England in 1470. The former's popularity with the English people soon gained him a powerful party. At the head of his army, Warwick marched against Edward, who fled to the coast, and instantly embarked for Flanders without waiting to strike a blow. Warwick was now master of the kingdom. **Henry VI. was brought out from the Tower and replaced upon the throne.** But this was the last triumph of the Lancastrians, and it was doomed to be short-lived.

The Fall of the Kingmaker.—Edward returned in less than six months with a small force which he had obtained from the **Duke of Burgundy**. He landed at **Ravenspur**, in Yorkshire, on March 14, 1471. The partisans of the White Rose soon rallied round his standard, and Edward marched to London. The hapless Henry was again thrown into the Tower. Then Edward led his forces against Warwick, who awaited him at Barnet, in Middlesex. On the night before the battle, Warwick's ally, 'false, fleeting, perjured Clarence,' with characteristic treachery determined to desert what he foresaw would be a losing cause, and went over to his brother. On the following day, which was Easter Sunday, the **Battle of Barnet** was fought. The Lancastrians kept up the struggle for six

hours with the utmost bravery; but at length the royalists prevailed. The Lancastrian forces were cut to pieces, and **Warwick** and his brother, Montague, fell. On this fatal day Margaret with her son landed in England. The evil tidings of Warwick's defeat soon greeted her. But the desperateness of her position gave her the courage to risk all on a last venture. Joined by the survivors of the Lancastrian nobility, Margaret met the victorious royalists at Tewkesbury. It was the battle of a forlorn hope. Her army was totally defeated, and Margaret herself was taken prisoner. Her son, Edward, was, it is said, stabbed to death by Clarence and Gloucester. A few days after the battle Henry VI. died in the Tower. Many suppose that he met his fate at the hands of Gloucester. Queen Margaret dragged out five years in solitary captivity, until she was ransomed by Louis XI. She returned to France, where she died in 1480, a lonely and broken-hearted woman. The star of the Lancastrians had set, and Edward of York was firmly established on the throne.

Benevolences.—Partly by the advice of the Duke of Burgundy, Edward now turned his mind on a war with France, believing himself powerful enough to win back the lost English provinces, even if he could not actually conquer the whole kingdom. Not deeming the sums voted by Parliament sufficient, Edward fell back on the arbitrary resource of exacting forced loans from the wealthiest of his subjects, which he had no intention of repaying. The sums obtained in this way the King pretended to consider as voluntary, and, with a cheerfulness in which the 'lenders' did not share, called them **Benevolences.**

Invasion of France.—In 1475 Edward landed at Calais with an army of 30,000 men. Not a blow was struck. Louis XI. was anxious to prevent a repetition of the Hundred Years' War, and proposed terms of peace. As the Duke of Burgundy had failed to keep his promise of joining him, Edward allowed himself to be persuaded by the crafty French King, and signed a treaty at **Pecquigny**, the conditions of which were:

1. That Louis should pay Edward 75,000 crowns down, an annuity of 50,000 crowns during his lifetime, and a ransom of 50,000 for the liberation of Margaret of Anjou.
2. That the Dauphin should marry Elizabeth, Edward's eldest daughter.
3. That a truce and free trade should exist for seven years between France and England.

Edward then returned home with his army, to find the country sullenly indignant at this abrupt end to an enterprise for which they had been grievously taxed. Edward's popularity had already begun to be a thing of the past.

Death of the Duke of Clarence.—Edward had never forgiven his brother for his desertion to the Lancastrians, and in a quarrel between Clarence and Gloucester the King took the latter's part. Casting about for some means of entrapping him, Clarence's enemies made some hasty words a pretext for a charge of treason. Clarence was arraigned before the House of Lords, found guilty, and sentenced to death (1478). He died within ten days in the Tower, but the manner of his death is uncertain.

William Caxton.—The most memorable event of this reign was the introduction into England of **Printing.** An English merchant, William Caxton, brought over the art from Holland and established a printing-press at Westminster. The first book printed in England was '**The Game of Chesse,**' in 1474.

Death.—Louis of France broke the terms of the treaty, by marrying the Dauphin to Margaret, the granddaughter of the Duke of Burgundy. Edward in hot anger prepared to lead an army into France, but before he could carry out his resolve, a fever seized him, which his constitution, undermined by long years of debauchery, was unable to throw off. Edward died in April, 1483, at the age of forty-one.

Family.—**Edward,** his successor; **Richard,** Duke of York; **Elizabeth,** who afterwards became the wife of Henry VII.

Character of Edward IV.—After the Lancastrian opposition was crushed, Edward showed himself to be a capable and energetic ruler, and a firm upholder of law. Especially had the industrial classes cause to be grateful to him, for he extended protection to them and their rights. But, beyond this, little can be said to his credit. Beneath the thin veneer of pleasant courtesy, which went so far to win him the popularity of the masses, was the *real* man—the man greedy of power, ruthless, vindictive and licentious, whose warped nature was seemingly redeemed by no single ennobling quality.

CHAPTER XXIV.

EDWARD V., 1483.

Accession.—At the time of his father's death **Edward** was not yet thirteen. As the King was too young to take the government into his own hands, the question of a regency arose.

This question intensified the antagonism of two powerful factions at Court. Of these rival parties, one consisted of the Queen's family, and was headed by **Earl Rivers**, her brother, and **Lord Grey**, her son; the other was composed of the old nobility, who hated the Queen's relations for the favour shown them by the late King, and included the **Duke of Buckingham, Lord Hastings** and **Lord Stanley**. The leader of this faction was the King's uncle, the **Duke of Gloucester**. Gloucester had long been secretly aiming at the crown; his first step was to summarily remove Rivers and Grey. The King set out from Ludlow Castle to London, where he was to be crowned. He was met by Gloucester's party at Stony Stratford. Gloucester arrested Rivers, Grey and others of the escort, whilst Edward was removed to the Tower until his coronation. The Queen-dowager fled to sanctuary at Westminster, taking with her the **Duke of York** and her daughters. Gloucester was declared Protector of the Realm.

Gloucester crushes Opposition. — One after another of the opponents of Gloucester's policy fell beneath the headsman's axe. Rivers and Grey were executed in Pontefract Castle; Lord Hastings was the next victim to Gloucester's unscrupulous ambition. Hitherto the nobleman and the Protector had been on friendly terms; both had borne a common hatred towards the Woodvilles, but Hastings was too honest and conscientious to sanction any measures that were to the youthful King's disadvantage. Hastings was arrested without warning and hurried off to execution. The Protector dared not go further in his plot until the King's brother was also in his power. He sent the Archbishop of Canterbury to the Queen, who remained in sanctuary with her family, to demand the surrender of the Duke of York to the guardianship of his uncle. The solemn assurance that no harm should befall the boy half convinced the mother. Reluctantly she gave up the little Prince, who was lodged with his brother in the Tower. The Queen had seen her two sons for the last time.

Usurpation of Gloucester.—Then the Protector revealed himself in his true colours. He prevailed upon a priest to tell the populace, in a sermon preached at St. Paul's Cross, that Edward IV. had a wife at the time of his marriage with Elizabeth Woodville, and that, consequently, Edward V. and the Duke of York were illegitimate, in which case Gloucester was the rightful heir. The Duke of Buckingham made a harangue to the same purpose; a hireling crowd raised a cry of 'Long live King Richard!' Buckingham, affecting to consider that

this was the voice of the English people, headed a deputation that waited on Gloucester, and formally offered him the crown. This the Protector, after an expression of surprise and reluctance that was ill-assumed, accepted.

CHAPTER XXV.

RICHARD III., 1483-1485.

Accession.—**Richard III.** was declared King by Parliament June 26, 1483, and was crowned at Westminster. The ceremony of coronation was repeated in York.

Murder of the Princes.—Richard felt that during the lifetime of the Princes his position must of needs be insecure. He foresaw that, sooner or later, the aversion with which he was regarded would cause an outbreak in favour of his deposed nephew. By his orders the young Princes were murdered one night, being smothered by pillows during their sleep by Richard's creatures. This crime was to cost Richard the throne.

Revolt of Buckingham.—The Duke of Buckingham had hitherto been Richard's strongest supporter. But a coolness sprang up between them, possibly from the King's fear that this nobleman was getting too powerful; and Buckingham allowed himself to be drawn into a plot that had for its purpose the downfall of Richard and the placing of **Henry of Richmond** on the throne. Richmond, on his father's side, was the grandson of Catherine, widow of Henry V., and Owen Tudor; by his mother's family he was a descendant of Edward III., through John of Gaunt's legitimatized son, **Beaufort, Earl of Somerset.** In the conspiracy **Morton,** Bishop of Ely, was prime mover. He had proposed to unite the rival houses of York and Lancaster by offering the crown to Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, on the condition that he married Princess **Elizabeth** of York, eldest daughter of Edward IV. The day appointed for the insurrection was October 18, 1483. Buckingham collected forces in Wales and marched to meet Richmond, who was to land the same day in Devonshire. But Buckingham found that, in consequence of a flood, the Severn was impassable; his followers deserted him; and, being betrayed into Richard's hands, this nobleman was at once executed. In the meantime, Richmond had embarked for England; but a storm delayed him, and the news of his ally's fate that met him on landing compelled him to return to Brittany.

Government of Richard III.—In January, 1484, Richard summoned a Parliament, and to win the confidence and popularity of the people he passed several important laws. These were the first enactments to be written in English, the French language having been hitherto used. The most noteworthy of these statutes were:

1. **Benevolences** were abolished, and the seizure of any person's goods before conviction pronounced illegal.
2. Statutes for **regulating commerce** were enacted.

Invasion of Richmond.—Richard, by way of strengthening his position, proposed to marry Elizabeth of York to his own son Edward. The Queen-dowager did not dare to withhold her consent. But before the plan could be carried into operation Richard's son died. The King then conceived the idea of marrying her himself, his wife having just died; but public feeling ran so high against this unnatural union that the scheme was abandoned. Meanwhile Henry of Richmond, whose chances of gaining the kingdom seemingly depended very much on his marriage with Elizabeth, determined to lose no further time. He landed at Milford Haven with a small force of 3,000 men, which was soon swelled to the number of 6,000 by recruits from Richard's discontented subjects. With this army Henry marched boldly to meet the King. The battle took place at **Bosworth Field**, in Leicestershire (1485). Shakespeare has described Richard's feelings on the eve of the fight, when all through the night, sleeping or waking, the murderer-King is haunted by the accusing memories of his evil deeds, and goes into battle unnerved by the prescience of his fate. Soon after the action opened, **Lord Stanley**, who commanded 7,000 men in Richard's army, declared for Richmond; **Northumberland** refused to fight. Deserted by these powerful allies, the King saw that all was lost. With desperate valour he dashed into the fight, and vainly attempted to cut his way to his rival; he fell, covered with wounds. After the battle Richard's crown was placed on **Richmond**'s head by Lord Stanley, amidst cries of 'Long live King Henry!' With Richard the dynasty of the Plantagenets came to an end.

Family.—Richard married **Anne Neville**, daughter of the 'Kingmaker,' and widow of Edward, Prince of Wales. By her he had one son, **Edward**, whom he survived.

Character of Richard III.—Richard possessed many kingly qualities: he was energetic and courageous, and possessed of no mean abilities. But these qualities were more than neutralized by the blackness of the crimes he committed to

gratify his unscrupulous lust for power. In appearance he was slightly deformed, one shoulder being higher than another. Some writers have exaggerated this defect and described Richard III. as a hunchback; but such a statement has no grounds of authority.

CHAPTER XXVI.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE UNDER THE PLANTAGENETS.

General Features of the Period:

1. The decay of Feudalism, the gradual extinction of Villenage, and the formation of a Middle Class.
2. The rise of Parliament, and the growing influence of the Commons.
3. Lollardism and the dawn of the Reformation; the translation of the Bible.
4. The formation into one race of the Saxons and Normans.
5. The beginnings of English Literature.
6. Improvements in arts and commerce.

Effects of the Crusades:

1. The power of the barons was weakened, for they were frequently forced to sell or mortgage their estates to raise money for their expeditions to the Holy Wars. Their lands were bought by men of the middle class or the Church.
2. Commercial intercourse was established with the East.

Results of the Wars of the Roses.—During this struggle the old nobility became extinct. This considerably strengthened the power of the King, as he had now no great nobles to fear. With this check removed, the royal authority became for the time practically despotic, as the House of Commons was not yet strong enough to cope with the King. On the other hand, this sweeping away of the aristocracy struck the death-blow to feudalism and villenage, and made room for the development of the power of the People.

The English Constitution was steadily growing during this period. By the close of the Plantagenet dynasty, the power of the Commons had grown in the following directions:

1. Supplies could only be granted with the consent of the Commons.
2. Laws could not be passed without their consent as well as that of the Lords.
3. The Commons had the right to know how public money was spent.
4. Members possessed freedom of speech in the House, and immunity from arrest.
5. Parliament exercised the power of altering the succession.

National Industry. — Commerce and Trade made rapid strides. Edward III. fostered its growth, and by planting a colony of Flemings in this country, introduced woollen manufacture, which became the most important industry of the kingdom. By the end of this period, England had a large trade with the countries by the Mediterranean. The exports were: wool (this was so much in demand that in 1439 a statute was passed forbidding its export except to Calais), sheep-skins, leather, woollen stuffs, lead, tin, butter, cheese, etc. The imports were: fine woollen goods, fruit, wines, precious metals and drugs. The internal trade of England was chiefly transacted in fairs and markets; for continental trade very many small ships were built, and an aid was given to navigation by the discovery of the mariner's compass about 1300. It is said that at the siege of Calais in 1346 the English merchant traders provided a fleet of nearly eight hundred vessels. English artisans were held in high repute for their skill. The Bills of Exchange, introduced by the Lombard merchant-bankers who settled in London during the reign of Edward I., gave a great stimulus to foreign trade.

Agriculture made little progress, the proportion of tilled land being very small to that left for pasture; this was possibly due to the turbulence of the times and the civil wars. Most of the cultivation was due to the monks. In order to encourage the raising of corn, a statute was enacted in 1463 forbidding the importation of corn unless the price of it in England exceeded 6s. 8d. per quarter. Vegetables were very little used.

Home Life in England. — The houses of the rich were more comfortably furnished. Carpets, beds, clocks, candles and other comforts were introduced during this period; chimneys, tiled roofs and glass windows came gradually into use; the rooms were hung with tapestry instead of being plastered, and various improvements were introduced towards the middle and end of this period. The houses of the poor were generally one-roomed cottages, built without chimneys. The mode of dress varied greatly. At one time ladies wore high head-dresses drawn to a peak, and gowns with long trains. During this period beaver hats were first worn in England; gloves were more commonly used than before. The higher classes took four meals a day: they had breakfast about seven, dinner at ten, supper at four, and a meal, called livery, at nine in their bedrooms; this consisted of cakes and wine. Dinner was the principal meal of the day, and in great houses it was enlivened by minstrels and jesters.

Architecture.—Gothic architecture superseded Norman architecture. The cathedrals of York, Salisbury, and other fine ecclesiastical buildings, are examples of this style, whose characteristic features are pointed arches, combined with richness of decoration.

Amusements.—The most popular amusement was the **Tournament**. There was a tilt-yard in every castle where these martial exercises were practised, and on every occasion of public rejoicing a splendid tournament was held; the lists would be surrounded by pavilions where the ladies assembled, by one of whom the victor would be crowned. Hunting, hawking, horse-racing and bull-baiting were also very popular. Among the poorer classes **archery** was in great vogue, the people being compelled by royal proclamation to practise it on Sundays after Church service, on the ground that the country's safety depended on the efficiency of the archers. As this practice fell into neglect, an Act was passed in 1478 prohibiting the more popular games of dice, cards, quoits, tennis, etc. At Court dramatic performances called **Mummings** were fashionable, and people of all ranks took part in them. These mummings were introduced into the **Pageants** given by the London citizens. The foundations of the drama were being laid in the '**Miracle Plays**,' or '**Mysteries**,' which were acted at first in churches by the clergy, and were designed to teach the people Scripture history. These biblical dramas were followed by '**Moral Plays**,' which were allegories, abstract qualities such as Truth, Mercy, Justice, etc., being assumed instead of scriptural characters. These plays were acted by laymen.

Language.—Despite the efforts made by the Normans, the English never adopted Norman-French for their social intercourse; and during the reign of Edward III. Norman-French ceased to be the 'official' language. The old rule which compelled students at college to construe the classics into French was allowed to fall into disuse, and an Act was passed directing that all pleadings in the law-courts should be in English. During this period the English language passed through three stages:

1. **Semi-Saxon** (1066-1250). The Anglo-Saxon words were gradually losing their case-endings.
2. **Early English** (1250-1350). An unbroken development of Semi-Saxon; prepositions and auxiliaries began to take the place of inflexions, and words were added from the Norman-French.
3. **Middle English** (1350-1500). The last few inflexions of nouns and verbs were dropping off, French words were very freely used, but without affecting the main stream of the language. The spelling was very varied.

Learning.—Until the introduction of printing, the clergy continued to be the only learned men in England, and their learning was almost limited to theology during the earlier part of this period. Gradually medicine and other arts received more study in the cloisters, for the clergy were the doctors and lawyers, as well as the schoolmasters of the time. But towards the end of this period the advance of education was beginning to show itself. Many seats of learning were founded, including the schools of **Eton** and **Winchester**, and colleges at Oxford and Cambridge.

Literature.—The principal authors of the period are:

Robert of Gloucester (1230-1285), author of a rhyming 'Chronicle of England.'

Robert Mannyng, who translated a rhyming 'Chronicle of England' from the French of Wace and Peter Langtoft.

John Gower (1320-1408), a poet, author of 'Confessio Amantis.'

Geoffrey Chaucer (1328-1400), the Father of English Poetry, author of 'The Canterbury Tales.'

John Mandeville (1300-1371), the earliest writer of English prose, author of a 'Narrative of Travels in the East,' written in English, French, and Latin.

William Longlande, author of a famous allegorical poem, 'The Vision of Piers Plowman,' a satire on clerical abuses.

John Barbour (1320-1395), author of an epic poem about Robert Bruce.

John Wycliffe (1324-1384), a celebrated divine, known as 'The Morning Star of the Reformation,' who was the Earliest English Reformer. He translated the Bible into English.

James I. of Scotland (1394-1437), author of a poem, 'The King's Quhair' (or book), of about fourteen hundred lines. He founded his style upon Chaucer.

John Lydgate (1375-1461), a monk of Bury St. Edmund's, who wrote many poems, including a 'History of Thebes.'

Sir John Fortescue (1395-1485), Chief Justice, author of a book on English Law.

William Caxton (1410-1491), the first English printer, author or translator of about sixty works, which he published.

Summary of Events under the Plantagenets:

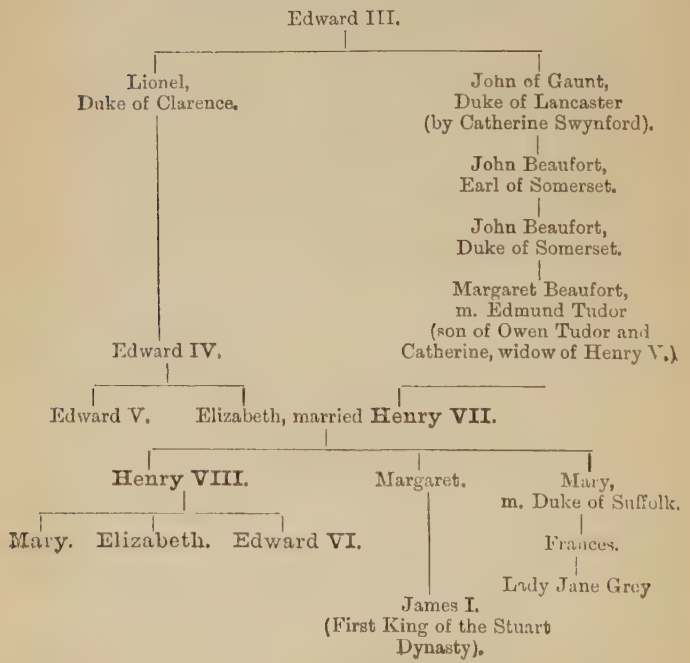
Becket appointed Archbishop	1162
Invasion and Conquest of Ireland	1171
Treaty of Falaise	1174
England divided into circuits	1176
Magna Charta	1215
The 'Mad Parliament' held at Oxford	1258
Simon de Montfort's Parliament	1265
Conquest of Wales	1282
Jews expelled from England	1290
Beginning of the Scottish War of Independence	1296
The Government of the 'Ordainers'	1310
Independence of Scotland secured	1314
Parliament separated into Two Houses	1333
Hundred Years' War with France begins	1339
Wat Tyler's Insurrection	1381
The 'Merciless Parliament'	1388
Statute passed for burning heretics	1401
Glendower's Revolt	1402
Rebellion of the Percies	1403
Execution of Archbishop Scrope	1405
Renewal of the Hundred Years' War	1415
Treaty of Troyes	1420
The Franchise limited to 'Forty-Shilling Freeholders'	1430
Joan Darc burnt	1430
Normandy conquered by the French	1449
Jack Cade's Rebellion	1450
End of English Supremacy in France	1453
Beginning of the Wars of the Roses	1455
Warwick's Revolt	1470
Treaty of Pecquigny	1475
Laws first written in English	1484
Invasion by Richmond and end of the Wars of the Roses	1485

THE TUDOR PERIOD:

Commenced 1485, ended 1603. Duration, 118 years.

Henry VII.	1485
Henry VIII	1509
Edward VI.	1547
Mary	1553
Elizabeth	1558

GENEALOGY OF THE TUDORS.


Edward III.
Lionel, Duke of Clarence.
John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster (by Catherine Swynford).
John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset.
John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset.
Margaret Beaufort, m. Edmund Tudor (son of Owen Tudor and Catherine, widow of Henry V.)
Edward IV.
Edward V.
Elizabeth, married Henry VII.
Henry VIII.
Margaret.
Mary, m. Duke of Suffolk.
Mary.
Elizabeth.
Edward VI.
Frances.
Lady Jane Grey
James I. (First King of the Stuart Dynasty).

CHAPTER XXVII.

HENRY VII., 1485-1509.

Accession.—The title of **Henry of Richmond** to the English throne was very weak. Although a prince of the House of Lancaster, Henry came of a legitimatized branch, the offspring of which had by Act of Parliament been debarred from succession. His claim to the crown by right of conquest alone would have alienated his friends; in fact—bitter though the truth was to Henry, who scarcely troubled to disguise the hatred in which he held the Yorkist cause—he practically owed his undisturbed accession to his projected marriage with the daughter of Edward IV., **Elizabeth** of York. In consideration of this marriage, Parliament passed an Act settling the crown on Henry and his heirs.

Insurrection of Simnel.—At the beginning of his reign Henry had taken the precaution to secure two possible rivals. These were: **Edward Plantagenet**, Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence; and **John de la Pole**, Earl of Lincoln, the nephew of Edward IV., who had been appointed heir by Richard III. Warwick was sent to the Tower, but Lincoln after paying homage to the King was allowed to retain his liberty. The first insurrection was not a formidable one. **Lord Lovell** and **Sir Humphrey Stafford** tried to raise a rebellion to depose Henry, but the rising was quickly suppressed. Stafford was executed; Lovell escaped to Flanders, and found an asylum at the court of **Margaret of Burgundy**, sister of Edward IV. There was still a powerful Yorkist faction desirous of placing on the throne some member of that family. As the Earl of Warwick was a close prisoner, a plot was set afoot by Margaret, to personate Clarence's son. By this means it was hoped that a general rising of the Yorkists would be excited, who if victorious would then place the real Warwick on the throne. A lad of obscure birth, named **Lambert Simnel**, was trained by one Simon, a priest, to play the part, and introduced in Dublin as the Earl of Warwick, escaped from the Tower. The impostor was warmly received in Ireland by the Lord-Deputy, the **Earl of Kildare**, who was a staunch Yorkist, and Simnel was proclaimed King. Henry immediately caused the real Warwick to be led publicly through London to expose the imposture. But the insurrection spread; Lovell and Lincoln joined the pretender; a body of 2,000 Germans were sent over by

Margaret of Burgundy to his assistance. Simnel then landed in England. But the people were tired of civil war; the pretender got no recruits, and the rebel army was defeated at **Stoke**, in Nottinghamshire, June 16, 1487. Simnel was taken prisoner, and with a clemency probably inspired by contempt, Henry made him a scullion in the royal kitchen.

Affairs in France.—Anxious though Henry was to maintain peace, he was drawn against his will into a war with France. Brittany was the only duchy in France that retained its independence. The French King, **Charles VIII.**, was anxious to add this fief to the crown, and accordingly picked a quarrel with the **Duke of Brittany**. The Duke appealed to England for aid, in return for the shelter he had accorded to Henry during the reign of Richard III. Henry would have preferred to forget the claims of a bygone kindness, but the state of public feeling indicated the unwisdom of such a policy; accordingly, the King responded in a half-hearted way, and sent a small force to the help of the Bretons. But, though he was reluctant to fight, Henry was not the man to miss the opportunity of levying taxes afforded by the excuse of an imminent war. The people of the North, however, had a not unreasonable objection to filling the King's private treasury on so transparent a pretext, and a rising took place. This was suppressed by the Earl of Surrey. Shortly after the Duke of Brittany died. His daughter was taken prisoner, and forced into marriage with the French King. Brittany was incorporated with the crown (1491). The indignation of the English compelled Henry to interfere with the French King's schemes. Parliament voted subsidies for the war, and the King revived the old expedient of extorting money by 'benevolences,' which Edward IV. had found so useful. He then took a large army into France and played at besieging Boulogne. Charles VIII. saw that this representative of British indignation would set more store by the gold of France than the wishes of England, and offered what was virtually a bribe. A treaty of peace was drawn up at **Estaples**, November 3, 1492, and in it Henry agreed to withdraw his forces on payment of £149,000. This peace was received in England with much dissatisfaction, more especially as Henry kept in addition the money he had obtained from his subjects for the war.

Insurrection of Warbeck.—Another plot now arose to threaten Henry's peace of mind. **Perkin Warbeck**, son of a merchant of Tournay, was put forward as **Richard, Duke of York**, second son of Edward IV. the younger of the two

princes said to have been murdered in the Tower. Warbeck was warmly supported by Margaret of Burgundy and the Yorkist faction, and a conspiracy was set on foot in England to dethrone Henry. Sir Robert Clifford, however, one of the leading spirits in the plot, turned traitor, and revealed all to the King. Warbeck's supporters were promptly arrested and executed. Warbeck fled to Ireland; but he found that the new lord-deputy, **Sir Edward Poynings**, had so strengthened the English supremacy there, that he was compelled to leave the island. By a measure called **Poynings' Law**, it was enacted that the Irish Parliament should not meet without sanction from the English Government, and that no Bill could be brought into it unless it had first been approved of by the King and his council (1495). This statute destroyed the Yorkist influence in Ireland. The pretender fled to Flanders. Here he did not receive much encouragement, for Henry was able to seriously hurt their trade by banishing the Flemish merchants from England, and forbidding the exportation of English wool to Antwerp. Warbeck then went to Scotland. A peace patched up between James IV. and Henry compelled Warbeck to leave Scotland. He landed in Cornwall, where some 3,000 men joined him. At first the impostor met with a little success, but whilst he was besieging Exeter the royal troops advanced on him. His courage being but indifferent, Warbeck fled, leaving his army to throw themselves on the King's mercy. Warbeck was captured and sent to the Tower, where he was kept in not unkindly confinement.

Execution of Warwick.—In the Tower Warbeck made the acquaintance of the Earl of Warwick. Together they planned escape from captivity; but their plot was discovered, and both were executed (1499). Nothing can be urged to palliate this judicial murder of Warwick. It was prompted solely by motives of expediency. Henry wished to arrange a marriage between his son and the Infanta; but whilst Warwick lived the King of Spain refused his consent, on the ground that his daughter's husband might find in that nobleman a rival for the crown.

Marriage of Prince Arthur.—In 1501 the King's eldest son, **Arthur**, married **Katherine of Arragon**, daughter of King Ferdinand. Within a few months of the marriage Arthur died. Henry could not bring himself to part with her dowry of 200,000 ducats, and obtained a dispensation from Pope Julius II. permitting his second son, **Henry**, to marry Arthur's widow. This marriage took place in 1509. In 1503 the King's eldest

daughter, **Margaret**, was married to James IV. of Scotland. From this match eventually came the union of the English and Scottish crowns exactly one hundred years later.

Henry's Government.—The policy of Henry, as of all the Tudor dynasty, was to weaken, as far as possible, the power of the nobles, and bid for popularity by championing the cause of the middle and lower classes. The effect was an increase of power to the crown that rendered the King almost absolute. Henry's task of subjecting the nobles had been aided by the events that culminated with his accession. The close of the Wars of the Roses had seen the ranks of the old nobility hopelessly shattered; the power of those who survived was judiciously curtailed by Henry. The **Statute of Fines** was a measure permitting the nobles to sell their estates without the customary fines. Many of the nobility who had been unable to do so before now disposed of their estates, which were bought by rich commoners. The disregarded law against **Maintenance**, which forbade the nobles to keep a large military household of 'retainers,' Henry determined to enforce; and, as the power and position of the aristocracy frequently interfered with justice at the regular assizes, the King established the **Court of Star Chamber**, where such offenders could be tried with a similar impartiality to that shown to one of lower rank. By these wise measures Henry kept the turbulent spirits in check, and ensured peace and order in the country.

Maritime Discovery.—Henry's reign is memorable on account of the discovery of the New World. In 1492 **Christopher Columbus**, a Genoese, discovered the West Indies. Five years later **Sebastian Cabot**, a Venetian, with an English ship manned by English sailors, touched the mainland of North America. In the same year (1497) **Vasco de Gama**, a Portuguese, opened out a new way to India by rounding the Cape of Good Hope for the first time. These discoveries were of great importance to Europe, and had the effect of shifting the centre of commerce from the countries lying about the Mediterranean to those washed by the Atlantic.

Death.—Henry VII. died of consumption in 1509.

Family.—Henry's children were: **Arthur**, who died in 1502; **Henry**, afterwards King; **Margaret**, who married James IV. of Scotland; and **Mary**, who married (1) Louis XII. of France, and (2) Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

Character of Henry VII.—The state of England during this

reign is ample proof that Henry possessed the qualities of a statesman. He ascended the throne at a time when England was rent by civil war; it was due to his vigilance, foresight and ability that at his death the country—peaceful and prosperous—was entering upon her career of future commercial greatness. As a man, Henry lacked the magnetism of personal attraction; his nature was cold and calculating, his manners reserved and forbidding. His ruling passion was avarice, and in gratifying this vice Henry frequently acted with arbitrary unscrupulousness. Throughout the reign his subjects were constantly grumbling at the heavy exactions laid upon them in the shape of taxes, severe fines inflicted for neglect of forgotten laws, and benevolences. This feeling cost Henry a great deal of popularity.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

HENRY VIII., 1509-1547.

Accession.—Henry VIII. was crowned at Westminster, June 24, 1509, at the age of eighteen, and the coronation of one who united in himself the rival factions of York and Lancaster was hailed with joy by the whole nation.

The Holy League.—This was a plot formed by Pope Julius II. and Ferdinand of Spain to curb the power of the French King, who was desirous of conquering Italy. The prospect of recovering the former English provinces in France induced Henry to join the league. An army of 10,000 men, under the command of the **Marquis of Dorset**, was sent to Spain to invade Guienne; but instead of doing so, the crafty Ferdinand used his English allies as a means to make himself master of Navarre. Dorset in disgust returned with the troops to England (1512). In the following year, Parliament having granted a poll-tax for the purpose of carrying on the war, Henry landed at Calais with an army of 25,000 men, and laid siege to **Terouenne**. Some French forces sent to the relief of that place were put to flight at **Guinegate** ('Battle of Spurs'). Shortly afterwards a peace was made between the two countries. During Henry's absence in France, his brother-in-law, the King of Scotland, who bore him little good-will, invaded England as an ally of the French. He was met near the Cheviots by an English army, and in the battle of **Flodden Field** the Scots were defeated with terrible slaughter. **James IV.** and many of the Scottish nobility were slain (1513).

Rise of Wolsey.—For fifteen years the most important person in England was **Thomas Wolsey**. This statesman was a man of obscure birth, educated for the Church, whose versatile talents had brought him under Henry's notice. Step by step this ambitious man of the world reached a height of power second only to that of the King. Henry gave Wolsey the Archbishopric of York and the Chancellorship; the Pope made him Cardinal and afterwards papal legate—for fourteen years Wolsey exercised the chief power in both Church and State. He aimed still higher. He had designs of making himself Pope.

Dispute for the Imperial Crown.—By the terms of the treaty between France and England in 1514, **Louis XII.** married Henry's sister Mary. Three months after the marriage the French King died, and was succeeded by **Francis I.**, an ambitious man, who, on the death of the German Emperor in 1519, became a candidate for the imperial crown. **Charles**, Archduke of Austria, however, was elected, with the result that under his sway were brought Spain, Austria, Germany, Naples and the Netherlands. Francis, fearing the power of his rival, made Henry an offer of alliance. In 1520 the two monarchs had an interview at the '**Field of the Cloth of Gold**,' so called from the gorgeous magnificence displayed at the meeting by both French and English. This lavish expenditure resulted in nothing but pledges made to be broken. Judicious bribes and a promise of the Popedom had secured to Charles Wolsey's influence; Henry allied himself with the Emperor. This alliance, however, did not last long, for it soon became evident that England would gain nothing by a war in which the Emperor was using Henry as a tool to further his own ambitious schemes. In 1525 the Emperor dealt a crushing defeat on the French and took Francis prisoner. Wolsey at once broke the alliance with Charles, and a treaty was made between England and France. A private grievance, owing to the Emperor's failure to make him Pope, may have partly supplied the minister's motive in reversing his foreign policy; but it is more just to suppose that this astute statesman saw that, unless the balance of power were maintained, the Emperor might become a danger to the liberties of Europe. The result of this new alliance was the release of Francis.

The Reformation.—By the Reformation is meant the change from the Roman Catholic to the Protestant religion, which came into progress in Europe during this reign. A few years after Henry's accession an earnest Augustine monk of Saxony named **Martin Luther** had boldly denounced the

doctrines of the Romish Church and the abuses to which she was given up. Pope Leo X., in order to raise funds for the completion of a church, had resorted to the sale of **Indulgences**. In 1517 Luther fiercely attacked this practice, and his opinions spread rapidly through northern Germany. This religious movement was too powerful to be stemmed; it made its way to England, where the seed sown by Wycliffe had not been fruitless. With the progress of printing people had begun to read and think for themselves; the bulk of the nation were dissatisfied with the encroachment and abuses of a Church they had ceased to respect, and covertly welcomed the reform movement. Henry, however, was hostile to Protestantism, as the movement came to be called. In 1521 he had gone so far as to write a treatise in Latin against the teachings of Luther, in acknowledgment of which the Pope conferred on him the title—ever since used by English sovereigns — of '**Defender of the Faith.**'

Divorce of Katherine.—Eighteen years of married life had failed to bring Henry a male heir. With the exception of one daughter, all the children of this marriage had died soon after birth. The fear of a disputed succession had already led Henry into an unpardonable crime: the execution on a charge of high treason of the **Duke of Buckingham**, a descendant of Edward III., who was suspected of having designs on the throne. Moreover, Henry was tired of his wife, and in love with another woman, **Anne Boleyn**, granddaughter of the Duke of Norfolk. Therefore he pretended that his conscience pricked him for having married his brother's widow, and appealed to the Pope to declare the union illegal. Wolsey was anxious for the dissolution of the marriage, as he wished the King to marry a French princess. The Pope, being at the time in the power of the German Emperor, who was Katherine's nephew, was afraid to give a decision; either a yea or a nay would raise him up an enemy. He temporised, by sending to England a legate, **Cardinal Campeggio**, who was to try the case in conjunction with Wolsey. The court, however, was adjourned without any decision being arrived at; the Pope then summoned Henry to Rome. Henry was furious, and with capricious injustice laid the blame on the shoulders of Wolsey.

Wolsey's Fall (1529).—The old minister had plenty of enemies ready to fan the anger of the King against him. The nobility hated Wolsey for his power and arrogance; Anne Boleyn and her family, whose influence with Henry was at the time considerable, bore him a grudge for his opposition to the

projected match; the national mind was greatly prejudiced against him, for the intended divorce was popularly credited to Wolsey; and such a step, bringing England and Spain into fierce enmity, threatened to interrupt the trade with Flanders. Wolsey's doom was sealed. The Chancellorship was taken from him and given to **Sir Thomas More**; his fortune was forfeited, and the fallen favourite had to withdraw to his Archbishopric of York. Humbled though he was, Wolsey's enemies were not appeased, and in 1530 they caused him to be arrested on a charge of high treason. But Wolsey never reached London. Heartbroken, he died on the journey at Leicester Abbey. The great minister deserved a better fate. Whatever his faults may have been, he served the King faithfully, and the benefits conferred on the country during his impartial administration were not a few. Especially did learning and the promotion of arts and sciences owe much to his encouragement.

Henry Breaks with Rome.—As the Pope would not give his consent to the divorce, Henry adopted a suggestion made by **Thomas Cranmer**, Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, namely, to decide the matter by the opinion of the universities of Europe. The decision of many was in the King's favour, and Cranmer was rewarded with the See of Canterbury. Henry then broke with Rome and married Anne Boleyn in 1533; Cranmer formally pronounced the King's previous marriage null and void. It was by the advice of **Thomas Cromwell**, a counsellor of the King, who owed his position to Wolsey, that Henry took the important step of shaking off the papal supremacy. He began by informing the clergy that, equally with Wolsey, had they incurred the penalties of Præmunire in recognising the late Archbishop of York as papal legate, and refused to forgive the offence unless they recognised him as **Supreme Head of the Church** of England, 'so far as the law of Christ would allow.' Parliament swept away all the links that bound England to Rome. Acts were passed forbidding (1) the payment of first-fruits (or the first year's income on appointment to a bishopric) to the Pope, and (2) Appeals to Rome. In 1534 Parliament passed an **Act of Supremacy** confirming the exclusive authority of Henry over the English Church, and for refusing to acknowledge it, two brave and good men, **Fisher**, Bishop of Rochester, and **Sir Thomas More**, were in the following year sent to the scaffold. The breach with Rome was complete.

Suppression of the Monasteries.—Henry now determined to follow the example set by Wolsey, who had suppressed some of the smaller monasteries, using their revenues for the founding

of seats of learning. Henry's pretexts for attacking the monasteries were:

1. They were alleged to be centres of drunkenness and vice.
2. The monks endeavoured to stir up discontent among the people by denouncing Henry's supremacy.

Henry's real motive was to strike a final blow at the power of the Pope, and gain possession of the monks' wealth. The project was carried into force with the greatest injustice and violence; magnificent chapels and monuments of art were ruthlessly destroyed, together with many valuable books. Parliament had permitted the dissolution of the monasteries, on the understanding that the forfeited revenues were to be devoted to the founding of schools, and to the public good in general. But the greater part of the wealth thus acquired was frittered away on the King's favourites. Any good that sprang from this arbitrary measure was far outweighed by the suffering it caused. Not only were numbers of the inmates of these monasteries reduced to starvation, but the relief of the poor and destitute, which had always been freely accorded at the convent-doors, was sorely missed. Moreover, most of the church-lands were turned into pasture, thereby throwing hundreds of labourers out of work. Various insurrections ensued, the most formidable being a rising in Yorkshire, known as the '**Pilgrimage of Grace**,' which received the support of several of the nobles. This rebellion, however, was suppressed (1536).

Fate of Anne Boleyn.—Within three years of their marriage, the King tired of his second wife. He was disappointed at having no male heir, and, as he was in love with one of Anne's attendants, **Jane Seymour**, Henry gladly seized a charge preferred against the Queen by her enemies of unfaithfulness, as an excuse for ridding himself of her. Anne Boleyn was beheaded. The day after the execution Henry married Jane Seymour.

The Act of Six Articles.—Although Henry had cut England free from the authority of Rome, he was as much opposed to the Reform movement of Luther as ever, and would allow no change of doctrine. In 1539 the **Act of Six Articles** was passed, which upheld:

(1) The doctrine of transubstantiation. (2) Communion in one kind only. (3) Celibacy of the clergy. (4) Vows of chastity. (5) Private masses. (6) Auricular confession.

All were required to accept these articles under penalty of death. Persecution soon began to rage. Catholics who denied

the King's supremacy were beheaded; Protestants who refused to accept the Romish doctrines were brought to the stake.

The Fall of Cromwell.—Henry's third wife, Jane Seymour, died in 1537 in giving birth to a son, who afterwards became **Edward VI.** Cromwell, the Secretary of State, was anxious for Henry to marry a German Protestant princess, in order to strengthen England in the struggle against Rome, by making friends with the German princes. Through Cromwell's efforts a match was arranged between Henry and **Anne**, daughter of the Duke of Cleves. But Anne was far from good-looking, and when Henry saw her he was bitterly chagrined. He found an excuse to divorce his fourth wife, and in the same year he wreaked his wrath on the unfortunate minister who had suggested the marriage. Cromwell was charged with heresy and treason, and went to the scaffold (1540).

Katherine Howard and Katherine Parr.—Henry then married his fifth wife, **Katherine Howard**, the Duke of Norfolk's niece. In a short time a rumour reached the King's ears that his wife had been guilty of immorality. She was beheaded on Tower Hill in 1542. Henry's last wife, **Katherine Parr**, managed to survive him.

Wars with Scotland and France.—A rebellion in the North, instigated by **Cardinal Pole**, grandson of the Duke of Clarence, who was opposed to Henry's supremacy, was suppressed in 1541, and Pole's mother, the aged **Countess of Salisbury**, was beheaded on Tower Hill. This futile insurrection was followed by a Scottish invasion in 1542, **James V.** being a staunch ally of the Pope. The invading forces, however, were defeated by a small body of English at **Solway Moss.** This defeat broke James' heart, and he died shortly afterwards. Henry then formed the plan of uniting the two kingdoms by marrying his son **Edward** to **Mary Stuart**, infant princess of Scotland. The Scots, however, objected to the match, and entered into an alliance with France. Henry then made war on France, and in 1544 he took Boulogne; but no other success of importance was gained, and in 1546 peace was made with both France and Scotland. In the same year the **Duke of Norfolk** and his son, the **Earl of Surrey**, were arrested on the charge of attempting to restore the papal authority, and a further charge was brought against the latter, namely, of aiming at the crown. Surrey, a distinguished scholar and man of letters, was executed on January 19, 1547; Norfolk was only saved by the death of the King.

Other Events of the Reign:

Wales was incorporated with England (1536), and sent members to Parliament. In 1542 **Ireland** ceased to be a lordship, and was constituted a kingdom. **Ship-building** made great progress during this reign, and the **Navy** was firmly established on a reconstructed basis; dockyards at Woolwich, Portsmouth, and Deptford were founded; **Hampton Court Palace**; **Christchurch College**, Oxford, and **Trinity College**, Cambridge; and **Whitehall** were erected.

Death.—Henry died on January 28, 1547, of a lingering disease.

Family.—**Edward**, son of Jane Seymour; **Mary**, daughter of Katherine of Aragon; **Elizabeth**, daughter of Anne Boleyn.

Character of Henry VIII.—Henry was a man of ability and determination, but the keynote to his character was intense selfishness. When personal gratification prompted most of his actions, there is little wonder that, as he grew older, Henry, whose frank and open nature had won for him at his accession the popular title of Bluff King Hal, made his name proverbial for capricious tyranny. His temper became cruel, passionate, and vindictive; his gratitude for faithful service was as little as his toleration for the opinions of others; his extravagance led him into measures as dishonest as they were unconstitutional, and his device for raising money by debasing the coinage ruined, for the time being, the trade of the country. No King ever ascended the throne with brighter prospects than Henry; few have made worse use of their opportunities.

CHAPTER XXIX.

EDWARD VI., 1547-1553.

Accession.—Edward was crowned at Westminster in his tenth year. The will of the late King directed that, during Edward's minority, the affairs of the realm were to rest in the hands of sixteen executors.

Protectorate of Somerset.—In selecting this council Henry had prudently named eight members who adhered to the old faith, and eight who were favourable to the Reformation —of which Henry himself had become more tolerant during the last year of his reign. But this attempt to prevent either party from getting too much power was a failure. The **Earl of Hertford**, maternal uncle of the King, secured a majority in the council, and was appointed Protector receiving at the same

time the title of **Duke of Somerset**. The Protector was a man cursed with the inability to carry out his good intentions; lack of discretion was fatal to the success of all he undertook. Somerset was a Protestant, and lost no time in taking steps to force the new religious doctrines upon the country. Unfortunately, many of the reforms were carried out with unnecessary severity. The 'Six Articles' Act was abolished, and a Prayer-book in English, drawn up by Cranmer, was appointed to be read in churches, to supersede the Latin Mass-book. To enforce its use, an **Act of Uniformity** was passed. With the same fanaticism that later disgraced Cromwell's soldiery, commissioners were appointed by Somerset to visit the churches, to break down all images, remove stained-glass windows, and daub out with whitewash the paintings on the walls. These wanton acts alienated many sympathisers with the Reform movement.

War with Scotland.—Somerset was anxious that the King should marry Mary of Scotland—an arrangement to which the Scottish Parliament had given its consent in 1543. Tired of delay, Somerset determined to hasten the marriage by force of arms. He led an army into Scotland. The only result of a barren English victory at **Pinkie** (1547) was that the young Queen was sent over to France, and married to the eldest son of the King of France.

Insurrections.—In his management of home affairs Somerset was equally unfortunate. The country was in one turmoil of discontent. The suppression of the monasteries had brought much hardship on the poorer classes. The monks had been kindly landlords, whereas the new owners of the abbey-lands were not only harsh and exacting, but they also enclosed the commons, where the people had been wont to turn their cattle and poultry. Moreover, these new landlords converted most of the arable land into sheep-farms, with the result that labour became a drug in the market. The depreciation of the coinage, introduced by Henry as a happy means of paying his debts, had caused prices to rise fourfold. To beg was the only resource left to many; the increase of vagrants was met by harsh laws against vagrancy. The discontent was fanned by the enemies of the new faith, who attributed the misery of the time to the religious innovations. What lent colour to many of their statements was the regrettable fact that not a few of the leaders in the Reform movement only used religion as a cloak to hide their mercenary motives. Somerset was not without sympathy for the starving classes, but he was so zealous in proselytizing that he had little time to attend to the murmurs

of the multitude. Before he had taken any serious steps to inquire into the public grievances, two rebellions broke out simultaneously in East and West. The men of Devonshire and Cornwall rose in arms, and demanded the restoration of the old worship. German mercenaries were sent against the insurrectionists, who, after a brave stand, were defeated. No mercy was shown to those concerned in the rebellion. A more formidable rising was one that took place in Norfolk, under the leadership of **Ket**, a tanner, which was provoked by the unjust fencing-in of public pastures. The rebels, however, were scattered, and the leaders hanged (1549). These insurrections gave rise to the appointment of **Lords-Lieutenant of Counties.**

Fall of Somerset.—The popularity of the Protector began to wane in consequence of these disorders, which were attributed to his bad administration. Somerset was hated by the nobles for his assumption of royal authority and his sympathy (which had taken little practical form) with the poorer classes. As a leader of the Reform movement, he had embittered those who clung to the old forms of faith; he had incurred the enmity of others by causing his brother's execution on discovery of a plot against him. Many other causes combined to gain the Protector ill-will, not the least of which was his mismanagement of foreign affairs which had ended in the loss of Boulogne. Moreover, the Earl of Warwick aimed at filling Somerset's place, and lost no opportunity of bringing about his rival's overthrow. The Council deprived Somerset of his Protectorate, and he was sent to the Tower on the charge of having usurped the King's power. He was afterwards released and readmitted into the Council; but Warwick, who had now become **Earl of Northumberland,** seeing that his rival was regaining some of his popularity, caused him to be accused of high treason. Somerset was condemned and executed (1552). Northumberland succeeded him as Protector.

Northumberland's Rule.—Bad as Somerset's rule had been, that of the new Protector was worse; for, unlike his predecessor, Northumberland did not even mean well, and cared nothing for the welfare of the country. Oppression still continued; a further depreciation of the coinage went hand in hand with increased poverty, and the Protestant persecution of the Papists was fiercer than ever, for Northumberland—himself a man without an atom of religious feeling—had deemed it politic to ally himself with the Reformers. Cruel laws were enforced against those who resisted the religious changes; some even were burnt for their convictions. The Reformers thus

showed that they could be as intolerant as the Catholics, and their persecution caused a reaction in favour of the old faith. Meanwhile the King's health had begun to fail. Northumberland, who foresaw that if Mary succeeded his career of power would abruptly terminate, brought about a marriage between his son, **Lord Guildford Dudley**, and **Lady Jane Grey**, granddaughter of the sister of Henry VIII. By representing to Edward that Mary's succession would be fatal to the cause of the Reformation, this ambitious minister persuaded the young King to settle the crown on the Lady Jane.

Death.—Edward died of consumption on July 6, 1553.

Character of Edward VI.—So young was Edward when he died, and so little voice had he in state affairs during his nominal reign, that it is difficult to estimate his character or abilities. Early influences made him an ardent Protestant; by disposition he was a student and lover of learning, to which in our own time grammar-schools at Shrewsbury and other places, founded by him, bear witness. From his private journal we may snatch a few glimpses of insight into his character; these seem to indicate that historians who lay stress on the 'gentleness' of his nature are astray in their judgment, and that had Edward reached manhood he would have developed in full measure the self-will and callousness of his father.

CHAPTER XXX.

MARY, 1553-1558.

Accession.—Immediately upon Edward's death **Lady Jane Grey**, much against her wish, was proclaimed as Queen by Northumberland. But the feeling of the country was with **Mary**, eldest daughter of Henry VIII. Everyone knew that the Lady Jane was a mere puppet in Northumberland's hands, and the cruelty of his administration had gained him the active animosity of the nation; the English, Protestants and Romanists alike, supported Mary. Northumberland, deserted by his followers, was forced to surrender. In an ague of cowardice he appealed for mercy, but his prayers were disregarded, and he was beheaded. Lady Jane and her husband were sent to the Tower. Mary entered London amid shouts of enthusiasm, and was acknowledged as lawful heir at St. Paul's Cross. She was afterwards crowned by Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester.

The Old Worship Restored.—Mary was devoted, heart and soul, to the old religion, and her first acts were directed towards the restoration of the Roman Catholic faith. **Gardiner, Bonner,** and other bishops, were re-installed in their sees, burning to wreak revenge for their imprisonment on the Reformers. The Church statutes of Edward were repealed, the Latin Mass-book superseded the English Prayer-book, and the 'Six Articles' were restored. Cranmer, Latimer, Ridley, and other Protestants were committed to prison.

Wyatt's Insurrection.—Mary's chief adviser was the Spanish ambassador, **Renard,** who was anxious to arrange a marriage between Mary and her cousin, **Philip of Spain,** son of the Emperor Charles. The Queen herself was desirous of the match; she was attached to Philip; she believed, too, that the alliance would strengthen her schemes for the restoration of Romanism. Mary's subjects were far from sharing her wishes. The nation feared that England would become a mere dependency of Spain; moreover, reports of horrors practised on Protestants by the Spanish Inquisition filled the air. But Mary was resolved on this rash marriage; consequently a plot was formed to dethrone her and place Elizabeth on the throne. **Sir Thomas Wyatt** raised an insurrection in Kent, and at the head of an army marched to London. But the rebellion was crushed: Wyatt and four hundred of his followers were executed. Renard and Gardiner persuaded Mary that her lenience towards Lady Jane Grey had lent encouragement to the insurrection, in which her father, the Duke of Suffolk, was certainly implicated. Accordingly, to the shame of all concerned, Lady Jane Grey, her husband, and her father were executed. The Princess Elizabeth was kept in confinement at Woodstock.

Mary's Marriage.—Parliament yielded a reluctant consent, and the marriage of Mary and Philip took place at Westminster in July, 1554. In the marriage settlement it was stipulated by Parliament that Mary was to be sole ruler of England, and that if she died childless Philip was not to succeed to the throne. The marriage did not prove a happy one. The Queen was thirty-eight, Philip ten years younger; and her jealousy and ill-temper soon gave him cause to regret a union which he had entered into from purely political motives. He left England in less than a year.

The Persecution.—In November, 1554, a reconciliation was made with the Pope. **Cardinal Reginald Pole,** the Papal Legate, came to England to grant absolution to the realm from

the guilt of heresy and schism. The pardon of the Pope was received by the Lords and Commons on their knees. Thus there was a formal return to the obedience of the Papal See. The Lollard statutes of Henry IV. and Henry V. were revived, and in 1555 what is known as the 'Marian Persecution' began. Hitherto the Queen had not been betrayed into any exceptional severities; now she set herself to stamp out the new doctrines, root and stock, under the evil counsel of the ruthless bishops, Bonner and Gardiner. To escape the coming storm, many fled from England. Among these were **Foxe**, author of 'The Book of Martyrs,' and **Coverdale**, translator of the Bible. **Rogers**, Canon of St. Paul's, was the first victim. Men, women, and children were burned at the stake. **Ridley** and **Latimer** suffered their fate together at Oxford. Their deaths were followed by that of **Cranmer**, who, having been induced to recant in a moment of fear, vindicated himself by withdrawing his recantation, and died bravely. The persecution was kept up to the end of the reign.

State of the Country.—In other respects, too, the state of the country was deplorable. The evils which had fallen like a blight on England during the last reign had increased; numbers were out of work and starving, the country poverty-stricken, the crown at its wits' end for money. Parliament was grossly subservient to a small knot of Mary's unscrupulous counsellors; the laws were set at defiance, and money raised by any and every means, however arbitrary and unconstitutional. At this crisis of affairs Mary was persuaded by her husband to join in a war against France. The hopelessly bad administration sent ships that were unseaworthy, men inadequately supplied with arms. The war resulted in the loss of the last continental possession of England, **Calais** (1558).

Death.—For some time the Queen's health had been failing; the loss of Calais, a lingering illness from which she suffered, and other causes, brought on a fever, which ended her life, November 17, 1558. Cardinal Pole died on the same day.

Character of Mary.—Mary is one of the saddest figures in English history. Deeply as she sinned against her subjects, her acts were prompted, not by selfish motives, but by a mistaken sincerity of conviction; and we can look with pity on the erring zeal that did not save her from leading a life perhaps more unhappy than that of any of those whom she governed. Of a naturally morbid and moody disposition, her temper was soured by her mother's unmerited disgrace, and her own cheer-

less and neglected childhood. Her life was one series of disappointments. She only inspired dislike in the husband whose love she craved; her passionate yearning to become a mother was never realised; hard-featured, and conscious of her subjects' dislike, she was racked with an acute jealousy of her half-sister Elizabeth's beauty and popularity: these were the causes that drove this unhappy woman to seek solace in the religion in which she was a fanatic, and readily adopt the evil counsel of her prompters. When her mind was so diseased by disappointed hopes, we cannot but, in common fairness, suppose that she was not responsible for all her later acts.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ELIZABETH, 1558-1603.

Accession.—Anne Boleyn's daughter, **Elizabeth**, was proclaimed Queen by the Council November 17, 1558, and her accession was received with universal rejoicing.

Elizabeth's Religious Policy.—That which the childless Mary had dreaded—the thought that had embittered her latter years—now came to pass. The succession had devolved on a Protestant, whose first care was to sweep away the old ceremonies of worship, and establish the new forms. As her chief minister, Elizabeth chose **Sir William Cecil**, afterwards Lord Burleigh, to whose wise advice much of the success of her reign is due. Elizabeth hoped that a middle course would satisfy the three parties in the kingdom:

1. The **Catholics**, who represented half the nation.
2. The **Moderate Reformers**, who became the **Episcopalians**, desirous of using Edward VI.'s Prayer-book, yet anxious to retain part of the old worship.
3. The **Puritans**, or extreme Reformers, who objected to all religious forms and ceremonies, such, for example, as the wearing of ecclesiastical vestments, the use of a ring in marriage, any set form of prayer, music in church services, and the sign of the cross in baptism. Many of these men, who were prejudiced against all freedom in social life and all that was beautiful in art, were returned exiles who had gathered their austere opinions from the French reformer, **John Calvin.**

Elizabeth only succeeded in pleasing the moderate Reformers by her measures. The second Prayer-book was revised, and appointed to be used in all churches, by the **Act of Uniformity**; all other religious services were forbidden, and everyone was compelled to go to church. These changes naturally provoked opposition; with one exception, the bishops refused to acknowledge Elizabeth's supremacy, and were deprived of their sees.

To enforce conformity, a **Court of High Commission** was established, with power to try cases of heresy, or offences against the Church laws. The work of restoring Protestantism was completed in 1563, when the forty-two articles of religion were reduced to **thirty-nine** by the convocation. Religious toleration was a quality unknown in those days, and, as in the last reign, many 'heretics' suffered death because they refused to conform to the national faith.

Elizabeth's Foreign Policy.—When Elizabeth came to the throne, England was at war with France. The country was in an almost bankrupt condition, and unable to bear the strain of foreign wars. Elizabeth's first care was to make peace with France, and leave Spain to fight its own battles. She realized that whilst those two countries were deadly rivals, England would be unmolested. In Scotland, however, interference was necessary. Mary, Queen of Scots, was the wife of the French King, Francis II., and the French supported her claims to the throne of England, on the ground that Elizabeth was illegitimate. Moreover, the country was in a wild state of disorder. The Reformation under the guidance of **John Knox** had made strong progress in Scotland, despite the oppressive measures of the Catholic government. Elizabeth agreed to assist the Protestant party. A small fleet with an army of 8,000 men was sent to Scotland; the French party was worsted, and the **Treaty of Leith** made in 1560, by which the French forces were withdrawn from that country, and Elizabeth's title to the crown acknowledged. In the same year, by Act of Parliament, the Presbyterian form of worship was established in Scotland. In 1560 Francis died, and Mary returned to Scotland. Civil war broke out in France between the Protestants and Catholics; and in 1562 Elizabeth sent help to the Huguenots, as the former were called; later she assisted the Protestant subjects of Spain in the Netherlands, in their struggle against Philip. This policy resulted in keeping Spain and France too much occupied in managing their own affairs to trouble England. Then Elizabeth turned her attention to reforms at home. She renewed the coinage, encouraged ship-building and trade generally, and took steps to relieve the poverty of those too ill or too old for work. At the end of her reign, a **Poor Law** was passed, compelling every parish to provide for those who wished to work but could not find employment.

Mary, Queen of Scots.—Mary was the granddaughter of Henry VIII.'s sister, Margaret, and considered by many the rightful heir to the English throne. She was not popular in Scotland, owing to her strong attachment to Popery; moreover

she laid herself open to charges of grave crimes, not the least of which the murder of her second husband, **Lord Darnley**. Whether she was privy to the deed or not, she married **Bothwell**, who was universally believed to be the actual culprit, and this lent colour to the accusation. The Scottish lords rose in arms, and forced Mary to sign her abdication in favour of her infant son, **James VI.** (1567). Mary fled to England, and threw herself on the mercy of Elizabeth. Reasons of State policy prevented a Protestant Government giving shelter to one whose Romanist principles had been in part the cause of her subjects' rebellion. An inquiry into the charges brought against Mary was instituted; the investigations were unsatisfactory, and the luckless Queen was placed in confinement.

Rebellions.—In 1569 two plots were laid by several Roman Catholic noblemen to place Mary on the throne: in the first conspiracy the Protestant **Duke of Norfolk** was implicated, being induced to join it by the proposal that he should marry Mary. Both plots were discovered and suppressed, and Norfolk was committed to the Tower. Three years later another plot was discovered, promoted by the Spanish **Duke of Alva**. For his share in this plot Norfolk was executed (1572). The same year witnessed the wholesale massacre of Protestants in France on St. Bartholomew's Day. Meanwhile the Pope had issued a Bull excommunicating Elizabeth, and absolving her subjects from their allegiance.

The Rise of the Dutch Republic.—The papal decree did not deter Elizabeth from continuing her policy of aiding the Protestants on the Continent. In 1585 she made a treaty with the Netherlanders. Nine years previously the cruelties of Philip to the Protestants in the Low Countries had led to the revolt of **William of Orange**, which was the first blow struck in the struggle that eventually won for Holland, or the northern Netherlands, her independence. Elizabeth had then helped the revolted provinces; and the subsequent assassination of William in 1584 was followed by Elizabeth's action in sending troops under her favourite, the **Earl of Leicester**, to the help of the provinces. The expedition was not a success; and whilst **Zutphen** was being besieged the famous Englishman, **Sir Philip Sidney**, was mortally wounded. The sympathy of England with the revolt in the Low Countries had an important result to this country, for numbers of persecuted artisans fled to England from the Continent, bringing with them many improvements in the arts and manufactures.

Execution of Mary Stuart.—The plots to dethrone Elizabeth and put Mary of Scotland on the throne still con-

tinued. In 1586 a conspiracy for Elizabeth's assassination was formed by a Roman Catholic gentleman of Derbyshire, **Anthony Babington,** in which many of the Queen's servants were implicated. But by means of spies, **Walsingham,** the Secretary of State, became acquainted with all the details of the plot; the conspirators were seized and put to death. Elizabeth's ministers saw that the Queen's life would be in constant danger whilst Mary lived; accordingly a special commission was appointed to try Mary on the charge of having been implicated in Babington's plot. She was found guilty, and beheaded in February, 1587. Harsh though this act may seem, national interest demanded it, for so long as the unfortunate Queen of Scots lived England was a hot-bed of sedition. Any blame attaching to this measure must be laid to the charge of Mary's own ill-advised friends.

The Struggle with Spain.—The hostility between Elizabeth and Philip had long been getting fiercer. It had begun when the English Queen refused to marry the Spaniard; the antagonism of the two religions, of which these sovereigns stood forth as the avowed champions, had led to further causes of hostility. Elizabeth aided the Netherlanders in their revolt; Philip encouraged risings in England and Ireland. Nor was this rivalry between the two Powers confined to the Continent. In the New World the enmity between English and Spaniards was even more bitter. Spain wanted to reap the entire benefit of the newly-discovered countries; her galleons carried home the riches of those far-off lands—plunder wrung by force of arms from the natives. England saw no reason why Spain should enjoy this monopoly of free-booty, and hardy mariners, under the flags of bold spirits like **Francis Drake** and **Sir John Hawkins,** adventured in their little ships to the countries across the Atlantic. The resentment of the Spaniards led to open hostilities, and many a richly-laden treasure-ship fell prey to the English. At last Spain declared war, and prepared a mighty armament that was to invade and conquer England. Before the **Invincible Armada** was ready, Drake took some English ships to the harbour of Cadiz, and under the very fire of the batteries destroyed many of the Spanish warships. In 1588 the Armada set sail. In England Catholics and Protestants alike massed to repel the invasion. But the Spaniards never landed; the beacon-fires flashed from hill-top to hill-top throughout the length of the land, and gave warning of the Spaniards' approach. As the towering, unwieldy ships swept along the Channel, the little English vessels followed in pursuit, and by their skilful management threw the fleet of the enemy into con-

fusion. The Spaniards took refuge in the port of Calais, but they were driven out by English fireships. A furious gale swept the broken fleet northwards; the storm gathered strength, and its force dashed ship after ship on the rocks. The overthrow of the enemy was complete. Of all the proud armament of the Spaniards only a few shattered hulks returned home. England had nothing more to fear from Spain.

Essex in Ireland.—Shortly after the defeat of the Armada Leicester died. Cecil had grown old in faithful service to the Queen, and a polished courtier, the **Earl of Essex**, rose into Elizabeth's favour. Ireland at this time was in a deplorable state; the English Government had, throughout the rule of the Tudors, shown harshness and injustice towards that country, and great discontent prevailed. In 1598 Essex was sent to Ireland to quell a rebellion headed by **O'Neal**, Earl of Tyrone, and secretly aided by Spain. Hearing that his enemies, who were many, were plotting to bring him into royal disfavour, Essex abruptly left his post without leave and returned to court. He was at once deprived of the command, and **Lord Mountjoy** sent to Ireland in his stead, where the rising was soon crushed. Essex was imprisoned, but shortly afterwards Elizabeth granted the disgraced favourite his freedom. Essex then attempted to raise a revolt. This act cost him his life: he was executed in the Tower in 1602.

Monopolies Abolished.—Elizabeth, in the true Tudor spirit, had treated Parliament in a high-handed manner, but with the increasing peace and prosperity of the country the Commons became more independent, and in 1601 they protested against the abuse that had grown up in **Monopolies**. Monopolies were grants by the crown, conferring exclusive rights to sell certain articles of daily use to royal favourites, who were able to charge exorbitant prices for these commodities. So firm was the attitude of the Commons, that Elizabeth had to agree to abolish monopolies.

Other Events of the Reign:

The **East India Company**, from which arose the British dominion in India, was formed. **Tobacco** and **Potatoes** were introduced into England from America. The **Royal Exchange**, and the schools of **Rugby, Westminster**, and **Harrow** were founded.

Death.—Elizabeth died at Richmond, in the seventieth year of her age, on March 24, 1603.

Character of Elizabeth.—The prosperity which Elizabeth's reign brought on England is proof sufficient of her abilities as a ruler and of her desire to further the welfare of her subjects. The secret of her success was her power of choosing capable

ministers and her wisdom in following their advice. Elizabeth inherited her father's imperious temper, but she understood better than he the art of keeping it in check. Her chief failings were her bigotry, her coarseness of speech, and vanity.

CHAPTER XXXII.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE UNDER THE TUDORS.

Leading Features of the Period:

1. The almost despotic power of the crown.
2. The establishment of Protestantism in England.
3. The growth of the English navy, and progress in the art of navigation.
4. Love of maritime enterprise, leading to the discovery of the New World and the consequent increase of commerce.
5. The influential position taken by England in Continental politics.
6. Growth of literature and learning.

The Tudor Despotism.—During the rule of the Tudors Parliament seemed to lose much of the power it acquired under the Plantagenets. This loss of influence may be traced to these, among various causes:

1. The old nobility, who had exercised a wholesome check on the crown, had been almost swept away during the Civil Wars.
2. A new order of peers took their place, who owed everything to royal favour, and in return invariably supported the sovereign.
3. In various ways the Tudors managed to secure a majority of their own creatures in the House of Commons. During the latter part of the Tudor period nearly one hundred boroughs were created in the royal interest.

Parliament sounded the depths of servility in Henry VIII.'s reign, when it released the King from his debts, allowed him to set up or pull down ministers at will, and gave to his proclamations the force of law. The Commons, however, began to show signs of returning independence towards the end of this period, as evidenced in their refusal to permit the system of monopolies in 1601.

Trade and Commerce.—New and fruitful fields for commercial intercourse were opened by the discoveries of Columbus and the Cabots. Until the defeat of the Armada the Spaniards tried to monopolize the trade with the New World, but they were unable to cope with the English, who ultimately, more than any other country, benefited by the communication with America. This success was partly due to the enterprise and discoveries of English navigators, such as Drake, Hawkins, Martin Frobisher, Raleigh, and others, and partly to the skill and daring of English sailors. During Elizabeth's reign England

reached a high pitch of commercial prosperity, though, unfortunately, in many of the dealings with the newly-discovered countries more robbery than exchange constituted the 'trade.' The internal trade of England was hampered by restrictions; it was attempted to fix the price of different articles by law; the wages of artisans were also fixed by statute. The religious persecutions on the Continent were the means of driving many foreign workpeople to England; the improvements introduced by these refugees gave a stimulus to the manufacturing industry of the country.

Agriculture.—So much land in England was given up to pasture that corn became dear, and led to a statute of Parliament forbidding any man to keep more than 2,000 sheep. Hops were introduced from the Netherlands during this period; cabbages, carrots, turnips, plums, cherries, and other fruit came into cultivation in England.

Home Life in England.—In the dwellings of the upper classes brick and stone began to take the place of wood; but the huts of the poorer people were still made of wattles plastered over with clay. A hole in the roof had to do duty for a chimney, generally speaking, in the houses of rich and poor alike. The floors were of clay, strewn with rushes. The furniture was simple and scanty. The straw pallets and the log of wood that had served as a pillow began to give way to beds of down, and linen sheets came into use, amongst the richer people. Pewter platters began to take the place of wooden dishes. Towards the close of the Tudor period the style of living very much improved. Vegetables and fruits came into constant use. The upper classes ate wheaten bread, but the poorer had to be content with rye and barley bread. The families of the nobles and gentry still dined at the same board with their servants, the line of demarcation being the salt-cellar, which stood half-way down the table.

Dress.—The costume generally consisted of a doublet fastened by a waistband, a short cloak, and a high-crowned hat. Nobles affected a gold hat-band and a feather. They wore their hair curled, and their beards long and pointed. The most striking features of a lady's dress were the immense ruff worn round the neck and the farthingale—a large hooped petticoat, which was introduced from Spain.

Public Amusements.—Annual festivals were observed with much ceremony. At Christmas-time mumming was practised by high and low alike, with much practical joking. On New Year's Day the wassail-bowl went from house to house. On May Day a maypole was erected on every village-green, round

which dancing took place. In addition to archery, football, and tennis, various cruel sports were very popular, such as cock-fighting, and bear and bull baiting.

Learning.—One of the most marked features of the Tudor period is the revival of learning. The last four Tudor sovereigns were good classical scholars, and they encouraged the taste for knowledge. Grammar-schools were founded; the price of books was cheapened, and translations of the Bible circulated. The effect of this spread of learning was that the middle classes began to take greater interest in national questions and make their influence felt.

Literature.—The reign of Elizabeth is one of the most brilliant epochs in the annals of our literature. Men of rarest genius left their mark on the prose, the poetry, and the drama of that period. The leading authors during the rule of the Tudors were:

Sir Thomas More (1480-1535), a prose writer, author of 'Utopia,' the scheme of an ideal government, and other works.

Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey (1516-1547), a poet who introduced the sonnet from Italy and wrote the first English blank verse.

William Tyndale (1477-1536), one of the early Reformers, who translated the Bible.

Sir Philip Sidney (1554-1586), prose author and poet, who wrote the heroic romance, 'Arcadia.'

Edmund Spenser (1552-1599), the second great English poet, author of the allegorical poem, 'The Faerie Queen.'

Richard Hooker (1553-1600), a divine, author of a work on 'Ecclesiastical Polity.'

Christopher Marlowe (1563-1593), a dramatist, author of 'Doctor Faustus,' 'The Jew of Malta,' etc.

William Shakespeare (1564-1616), the greatest poet and dramatist of all time, author of thirty-seven plays, as well as sonnets and other poems.

Sir Walter Raleigh (1552-1618), author of a 'History of the World.'

Francis Bacon (1561-1626), a great philosopher, author of 'Novum Organum,' 'Essays,' etc.

Summary of Events under the Tudors:

Court of Star Chamber established	1487
The mainland of America discovered by Cabot	1497
Fall of Wolsey	1529
Papal power in England overthrown	1534
Henry VIII. declared King of Ireland	1541
Book of Common Prayer adopted	1541
Roman Catholic religion re-established	1553
Restoration of Protestant worship	1559
Court of High Commission established	1583
Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots	1587
Defeat of the Spanish Armada	1588
Charter granted to the East India Company	1600
Poor Law established	1601

THE STUART PERIOD:

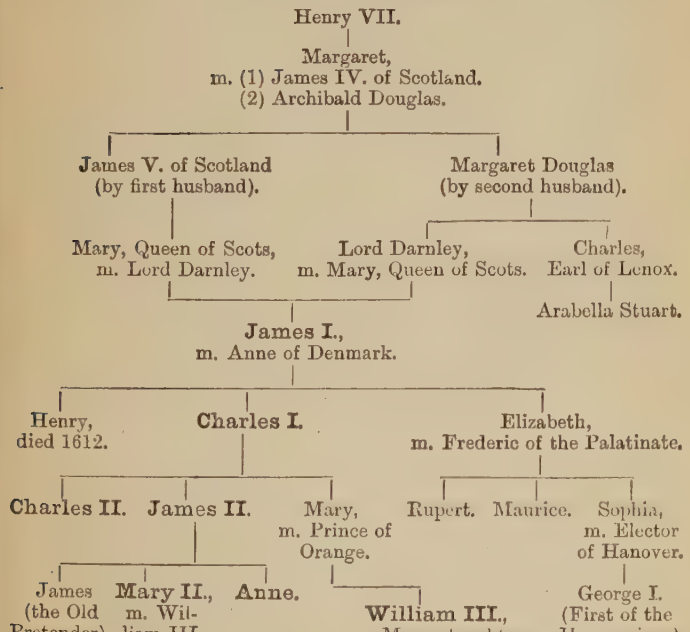
Commenced 1603, ended 1714. Duration, 111 years.

James I. (son of Mary, Queen of Scots)	1603	**Charles II.**...	1660
Charles I.	1625	**James II.**	1685
The Commonwealth ...	1649	**William III.** and **Mary II.**	1689
		Anne	1702

GENEALOGY

OF THE

HOUSE OF STUART.


Henry VII.
Margaret,
m. (1) James IV. of Scotland.
(2) Archibald Douglas.
James V. of Scotland (by first husband).
Margaret Douglas (by second husband).
Mary, Queen of Scots, m. Lord Darnley.
Lord Darnley, m. Mary, Queen of Scots.
Charles, Earl of Lenox.
Arabella Stuart.
James I., m. Anne of Denmark.
Henry, died 1612.
Charles I.
Elizabeth, m. Frederic of the Palatinate.
Charles II.
James II.
Mary, m. Prince of Orange.
Rupert.
Maurice.
Sophia, m. Elector of Hanover.
James (the Old Pretender).
Mary II., m. William III.
Anne.
William III., m. Mary, daughter of James II.
George I. (First of the Hanoverians).
Charles Edward (the Young Pretender).

CHAPTER XXXIII.

JAMES I., 1603-1625.

Accession.—In James was united the sovereignty of England and Scotland. He was crowned with his Queen, **Anne of Denmark**, at Westminster (July 25, 1603). James chose **Robert Cecil**, son of Lord Burleigh, as his chief adviser, and created him **Earl of Salisbury.**

Religious Policy of James.—The three great religious parties of Elizabeth's reign had been favourable to James's accession, for each had counted upon his especial good-will:

The **Roman Catholics** expected indulgence from the son of Mary Stuart; the **Puritans** believed that one brought up amongst Presbyterians would naturally be predisposed in favour of their narrow creed; both were disappointed. James had strong leanings towards **Episcopalian** doctrines, and firmly upheld the Established Church of Elizabeth.

Conspiracies.—In the first year of the reign two plots were set on foot:

Dissatisfied with the new ministry, Walter Raleigh and Lord Cobham conspired with Lord Grey to place the King's cousin, **Arabella Stuart**, on the throne. This was called the **Main Plot**, to distinguish it from another hatched at the same time called the **Bye Plot.** Into the latter both Roman Catholics and Puritans were drawn by a common grievance, the harsh enforcement of the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity during the preceding reign. The object of the conspirators was to seize the King and intimidate him into promising religious toleration. The project came to the ears of Cecil; the leaders in the plots were arrested and flung into prison. For thirteen years Raleigh remained a prisoner in the Tower, where he wrote his 'History of the World.' He was released in order to bring gold from a mine he professed to have discovered in Guiana, but he received orders that he must not attack any Spanish settlements. Raleigh, however, not only failed to find the mine, but he was also drawn into a battle with the Spaniards. On his return, James at once ordered the sentence of death, which had been hanging over him for fifteen years, to be carried out (1618). It was at the time when the King was trying to arrange a marriage between his son and the Infanta of Spain, and it was solely to please England's hereditary enemies that he sacrificed one of the greatest men of the time.

The Hampton Court Conference.—The Puritans, who were rapidly leavening the whole population of England, thought that the Episcopal Church was a compromise with Roman Catholicism. In 1603 they presented the **Millenary Petition**, protesting against certain ceremonies of the Established Church, signed by nearly one thousand clergymen. The King ordered a conference to be held at Hampton Court in 1604 between the bishops and the leading Puritans. The conference broke up in angry recriminations, the only result being that a new transla-

tion of the Bible was undertaken by royal command. This translation was the work of forty-seven theologians, and occupied three years. It was published in 1611, and is still used in the churches.

The Gunpowder Plot.—Under James the enforcement of the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity went briskly on. Romanists and Puritans alike were subjected to cruel severities. The resentment of the former took practical shape. Certain zealots formed the **Gunpowder Plot,** the aim of which was to blow up King, Lords and Commons when they assembled at the opening of Parliament. **Robert Catesby** and **Sir Everard Digby** were the leading spirits. A gloomy enthusiast of Spanish extraction named **Guy Fawkes,** who, though educated at the Cathedral School of St. Peter, York, was an ardent Catholic, threw himself heart and soul into the conspiracy. The day fixed for the deed was November 5, 1605; the cellars below the House of Lords were stocked with gunpowder; all was ready for the terrible crime. But an anonymous letter, written by a conspirator to warn Lord Mounteagle to absent himself from Parliament, aroused suspicion, and led to a search of the vaults. Fawkes was found preparing the train. The conspirators fled into the country; they were pursued and attacked at Holbeach, in Lincolnshire, where they fell after making a last desperate stand. All who were taken alive were executed. This act of a few fanatics brought unjust discredit on Roman Catholics as a body, and very severe laws were passed against them.

The Crown against the Commons.—Whilst James I. was King, the struggle between the crown and the Commons began, which led to that crisis in the succeeding reign to which England owes her principal liberties. James strangely misjudged the temper of the nation. The practical despotism of the Tudors afforded him a precedent, which his belief in 'the divine authority of kings' prompted him to follow. But James found that he had not the power to act as his predecessors had done. The reasons are not difficult to find. With the spread of education men were beginning to think for themselves. The middle class was becoming a power in the country. The advance of the times had swept away the sentiment, 'What was good enough for my father is good enough for me.' The independence of this new generation of men which was rapidly springing up had already shown itself in the last years of Elizabeth's reign; the representatives of the people in Parliament were beginning to really echo the voice of the nation. During the first session of Parliament, the Commons established their

exclusive right to decide in the case of disputed elections. The extravagance of James and his Court kept him constantly in want of money; in 1608 he hit upon the device of levying **Impositions**—that is to say, making unauthorized additions to the custom-dues, from which part of his income was derived. In 1610 the Commons protested against illegal taxation. James dissolved Parliament. Four years later he was compelled to call a second Parliament. The Commons met his demand for supplies with a refusal to do so until grievances were redressed. Of this Parliament **Pym** and **John Eliot**, who came into prominence in the next reign, were members. James dissolved Parliament after it had sat but a few weeks, and sent some of its members to prison (1614). James ruled for seven years without a Parliament, and raised money by impositions, benevolences, monopolies, and the sale of offices and titles. In 1621 Parliament was again called. The Commons at once attacked the system of monopolies, and passed an Act declaring them illegal. They also used their influence against the corruption which went on amongst the high officials of state. **Francis Bacon**, the Lord Chancellor, one of the most famous men of the day, was impeached at the bar of the House of Lords, found guilty, and sentenced to pay a heavy fine and lose his office.

Foreign Policy of James.—Whilst Cecil lived he used his utmost influence to keep James firm to the policy of Elizabeth, which had been to champion the cause of Protestantism on the Continent, and join alliance with the leaders of the Reformation. In pursuance of this policy, Cecil, in 1612, brought about a marriage between **Frederick**, the Elector Palatine, one of the German Protestant princes, and James' daughter, Elizabeth. But after Cecil's death, which took place in the same year, James sought the alliance of Spain, to the thorough disgust of the nation, and negotiated for a marriage between his son **Charles** and the **Infanta**. In 1618 the **Thirty Years' War** broke out. It was a religious quarrel, the immediate cause of which was a dispute for the crown of Protestant Bohemia, between Frederick of the Palatinate and Ferdinand of Austria. When war ensued England was anxious to aid Frederick, but James was afraid of offending Spain, which supported the Roman Catholic Ferdinand. The Commons besought him to make war on Spain, and marry his son to a Protestant. The King rudely told them they had no right to meddle with 'mysteries of state,' and when they replied, by declaring that freedom of speech and the liberties, privileges, and jurisdictions

of Parliament were 'the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England,' James tore this resolution out of the Journal Book, and dissolved Parliament (1621). Two years later Charles and the Duke of Buckingham went to Madrid in disguise to see the bride-elect. Buckingham quarrelled with the Spanish nobles, and the match was broken off. Charles returned, angry, and eager for war. Accordingly, in 1624, a new Parliament was called; supplies were voted; troops were sent to the help of Frederick, and war was declared against Spain. In the same year Charles was betrothed to **Henrietta Maria**, daughter of the late French King, Henry IV.

The King's Favourites.—The weakness of James' character showed itself in his fondness for worthless favourites; these were:

1. **Carr**, afterwards Earl of Somerset, whose talent for amusing the King was the secret of his rise. But a grave scandal, followed by a crime, in which Carr was implicated, led to the favourite's downfall.

2. After Somerset's disgrace, **Villiers**, Duke of Buckingham, won the royal favour. Buckingham soon won the hearty detestation of the English, for he encouraged the King in his unconstitutional methods, and filled the chief offices of state with his personal friends.

Colonies.—This reign is marked by the beginnings of England's colonial empire:

In 1607 some Englishmen founded a settlement in **Virginia**, under the leadership of one John Smith. In 1620 some Puritan refugees, driven from England by the intolerance of the times, sailed in the *Mayflower* to North America. These were the 'Pilgrim Fathers.' They landed in Massachusetts Bay, and called their first settlement New Plymouth. A colony was also planted in Ireland. Upon the suppression of O'Neal's rising at the end of the last reign, the estates of the rebel chiefs, which comprised nearly all **Ulster**, were confiscated and allotted out to English and Scotch emigrants, who soon made Ulster the most prosperous province in Ireland. But the Irish never forgot the cruelty that attended the colonisation.

Death.—James died of a tertian ague, on March 27, 1625.

Family.—**Henry**, who died in 1612; **Charles**, afterwards King; **Elizabeth**, wife of the Elector Palatine.

Character of James I.—James was a very unkingly monarch; awkward, undignified, and timorous, he was in every way the antithesis of the Tudors. He was pedantic, vain of his learning, and inflated with his own importance. He was as self-willed and stubborn as the Tudors; unlike them, he never cared to identify himself with the interests of his subjects; moreover, he lacked their tact and self-reliance, and leaned on worthless favourites. His wisdom was of an unpractical kind; it led him to write some tiresome treatises, and earned for him the name of the 'wisest fool in Christendom.'

CHAPTER XXXIV.

CHARLES I., 1625-1649.

Accession.—Charles was twenty-five years of age when he became King. The first act of his reign was his marriage with Henrietta Maria of France. The marriage was unpopular, as the Queen was a Roman Catholic. To the displeasure of the nation, the King retained Buckingham in favour.

The Petition of Right.—Charles wanted money to pay his father's debts, and to start the war with Spain. Parliament doubted the advisability of the war, and only voted a small sum. At the same time they demanded the removal of Buckingham. Charles dissolved Parliament, and, raising money by illegal taxation and forced loans, he fitted out an expedition against Cadiz. The expedition proved a hopeless failure. Charles was forced by his necessities to call a second Parliament. Although he had managed to get rid of several of the opposition members by naming them Sheriffs, and thereby preventing them being elected, the Commons were as resolute as ever in their demands for a redress of grievances. Before granting supplies they impeached Buckingham on many charges, one of which was: that he had lent to the French some ships, which **Richelieu**, the French Minister, had used against the Huguenots. In a fury the King dissolved Parliament. He then endeavoured to raise money by benevolences and illegal taxes; those who could not or would not pay were imprisoned or forced into the army. In 1627 Buckingham's folly involved England in a war with France; and the Duke himself took an expedition to relieve the French Protestants of Rochelle, who were being besieged by Richelieu. Buckingham's colossal incompetence ruined the expedition, which ended in disastrous failure. Charles was forced to summon his third Parliament (1628). The Commons were firm, and presented to the King a bill drawn up by Sir Edward Coke, Lord Chief Justice, Sir Thomas Wentworth, and John Pym, and refused to grant subsidies unless he assented to the terms of the petition. This **Petition of Right** has been called the **Second Great Charter of English Liberties**; it condemned the King's recent acts:

1. The levying of benevolences and taxes without the consent of Parliament.
2. The arrest of individuals for refusing to submit to illegal taxation.
3. The billeting of soldiers on private individuals.
4. The trial of soldiers and sailors by martial law.

Charles reluctantly assented, and in return Parliament granted him five subsidies. It was then prorogued. Before Parliament reassembled Buckingham was assassinated; this removed one great cause of quarrel between King and Commons. But, unfortunately, a question arose as to whether the Petition rendered illegal the levy of tonnage and poundage without Parliamentary grant, and Charles continued to enforce payment of those duties. He also revived old ceremonies in the Church service, which the Puritans thought savoured of Romanism. When the House reassembled in 1629 a stormy scene took place: **Sir John Eliot**, leader of the Opposition, denounced the King's conduct in plain terms. Charles angrily dissolved Parliament, and sent Eliot and others to the Tower. Eliot courageously refused to submit, and died in confinement.

The King Absolute.—From 1629 to 1640 Charles ruled without a Parliament. His advisers were **Archbishop Laud**, a devoted if harsh Churchman, and **Wentworth**, afterwards Earl of Strafford, who had previously sided with the Commons through mistrust of Buckingham. Wentworth was a statesman of ability, who proposed to secure for Charles absolute power by establishing a standing army. This scheme he privately designated '**Thorough.**' Wentworth put his plans into execution in **Ireland** in 1633, when he became Viceroy of that country. During his term of office his iron rule terrified the country into implicit submission. Many good reforms were introduced, but the feelings of the Irish were the last things considered. By Wentworth's advice peace was made with France and Spain, and rigid economy observed. In his rule without Parliament Charles found three tribunals very useful in enforcing his arbitrary acts:

1. **The Star Chamber**, which by a usurpation of power could sentence those who resisted the King's will to imprisonment, fines, and mutilation.
2. **The Court of High Commission**, which arbitrarily tried offenders in ecclesiastical cases.
3. **The Council of the North**, which had absolute power over the Northern counties.

Charles also found **Noy**, the Attorney-General, a ready coadjutor in the matter of suggesting new methods of increasing the royal revenue. The principal of these unconstitutional methods were:

1. By levying **tonnage and poundage.**
2. By exacting **fines**, by means of the Star Chamber and Court of High Commission.
3. By forcing landowners to the annual value of £40 to accept

knighthood. Those who refused were fined; those who complied had to pay for the privilege.

4. By reclaiming **forest lands** encroached upon by landowners.

5. By selling **monopolies** to companies.

6. By levying **ship-money,** which was a revival of the old feudal obligation by which the seaport towns had to furnish ships in time of war. Charles, however, levied the tax not only on seaport towns, but also on inland counties, and proposed to make it perpetual. In 1637 **John Hampden,** a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused to pay. In the trial the majority of the judges decided against him; but the arguments in favour of the tax were so futile that the King gained little by the victory, for men were beginning to see that their liberties were in danger.

Laud in Scotland.—Laud's summary treatment of the Puritans had sent many an Englishman to find a new home in the countries beyond the Atlantic, where he could worship God in his own way. Laud now attempted to establish the use of the English liturgy in Scotland (1637). The Scots, feeling perfectly competent to manage their own religious affairs, did not meet Laud in a friendly spirit. In 1638 almost all the Scottish nation bound itself by a **National Covenant** to defend the Presbyterian form of worship and resist Episcopacy. Twenty thousand Covenanters rose in arms under General Leslie. Charles, realising that he was too weak to fight, patched up a treaty called the **Pacification of Berwick.**

The Long Parliament.—In this emergency Charles convened a Parliament in order to obtain money for war. The **Short Parliament** took the opportunity of laying stress on the country's grievances, and was accordingly dissolved after it had sat only three weeks. But the invasion of Northumberland by the Covenanters compelled the King to summon what is known as the **Long Parliament** (1640), and enter into the **Treaty of Ripon** with the Scots. The Parliament at once entered on the work of reform. A Bill was passed declaring tonnage and poundage illegal unless granted by the Commons; the decision against Hampden was cancelled; the victims of the Star Chamber and Court of High Commission were released and compensated, and these two courts were abolished. Moreover, it was enacted that a Parliament should be held every three years, and that the present Parliament could only be dissolved by its own consent. Laud was sent to the Tower, and Strafford was impeached. As, however, in an impeachment the Lords were the judges, and the Commons simply accusers, Strafford's enemies thought his doom would be more certain if they brought in a **Bill of Attainder**—that is, a special Act for the purpose of punishing an offender who cannot be dealt with by the existing

laws, which, like other Bills, must pass through both Houses and receive the King's assent. The Bill met little opposition from either the Lords or Commons; Charles, despite his promise to protect his Minister, was persuaded to sign his assent. With manly courage Strafford met his fate. He was executed May 12, 1641. These disturbances in England gave the native Irish the opportunity to revolt. Under **Roger More, O'Neal** and others, rebellion broke out, the object of which was to destroy the English supremacy in Ireland. More than forty thousand Protestants were massacred. Parliament dared not trust the King with an army, and for two years Ireland was abandoned to the horrors of civil war. Meanwhile a party had sprung up in the House favourable to Charles; this was composed of moderate men like Hyde, Falkland, and Culpeper, who were opposed to the extreme measures and republican spirit of Pym's party. On November 22, 1641, Pym and the Opposition Party framed a '**Grand Remonstrance**,' which set forth in detail all the unconstitutional acts of the King. The moderate party saw that this was virtually an appeal to the country to establish a republic, and opposed the Remonstrance tooth and nail. After a passionate debate it was carried by a majority of eleven. The Remonstrance was printed and scattered broadcast.

Attempted Arrest of the Five Members.—Charles replied by demanding the impeachment of his five leading opponents, Pym, Hampden, Holles, Hazelrig, and Strode, and with fatal indiscretion went in person to arrest them. They, however, had received warning and were nowhere to be found. The next day the five members were escorted through London in triumph, amid the wild cheers of the citizens, and fears for his own safety prompted Charles to leave the capital. This was practically the beginning of the civil war.

Outbreak of the Civil War.—On August 22, 1642, Charles raised his standard at Nottingham. His adherents, who were called **Cavaliers**, were chiefly the nobles, the landed gentry, the High Church party, and the Roman Catholics. Those on the side of Parliament, nicknamed **Roundheads** from their closely-cut hair, were the Puritan middle classes; they had great advantages at the beginning of the contest, for all the fortified places were in their hands; the army and navy were favourable to them; and they had facilities for raising money. Supplies for the Royalist army had been procured by the sale of the crown jewels, and **Rupert**, the King's nephew, was placed in command. The **Earl of Essex** led the Parlia-

mentary forces. The first battle was at **Edgehill**, the issue of which was indecisive. The war continued with varying success, but at the end of the year 1643 the King on the whole had gained most, as the north and the west of the country were in his power. Among those slain on the Royalist side was **Falkland**. The Parliamentarians had lost one of their best men during the war, **John Hampden** having fallen on **Chalgrove Field**. In the winter of this year both parties looked about for allies. Charles made a truce with the Roman Catholic rebels in Ireland, and received help from them; the Parliamentarians turned for help to Scotland. A **Solemn League and Covenant** was drawn up between the two Houses of Parliament to abolish Episcopacy, and the Scots agreed to send help against the King, on the condition that the Presbyterian form of worship was set up in England. The Roundheads were too anxious for Scottish help to refuse, but to many of the Puritans Presbyterianism was as objectionable as Episcopacy. Soon after this Covenant **Pym** died. In the following year, 1644, with the help of the Scots, the Parliamentary army utterly defeated the Royalists at **Marston Moor**. This defeat, which was mainly due to the impetuous charge of **Cromwell's** regiment, the **Ironsides**, overthrew the royal cause in the North.

Rise of Cromwell.—Two factions were now springing up in the Parliamentarian party. These were the **Presbyterians**, who were enforcing their form of religion in England with much needless severity, and the **Independents**, who were equally bigoted against Romanism and High Churchism, but who wanted all different Nonconformist sects to have freedom of worship. This latter party were red-hot republicans who desired a complete overthrow of monarchy, whereas the Presbyterians were in favour of a limited monarchy. **Cromwell** was the leader of the Independents. Originally a captain in the Parliamentary army, his military skill had brought him to the front. He drilled a regiment of cavalry which became invincible; and to his genius may be ascribed the success of the popular cause. Cromwell saw that the war was not likely to flourish while such indifferent generals as Manchester, Waller and Essex were in command. In order to turn them out, Cromwell and others proposed to pass a **Self-denying Ordinance**, forbidding members of Parliament 'to neglect their duties in the House' by being in command. Despite much opposition, the ordinance was passed, and the members were deprived of their commands. An exception was made in the case of Cromwell, whose services were needed to 'new model' the army.

A few months before this enactment was passed, the Puritan party committed an act of petty resentment, for which there is no shadow of palliation — Archbishop Laud, a white-haired man of seventy, was taken from the Tower and executed. In the summer of 1645 the 'new model' army, under Cromwell and Fairfax, inflicted a decisive defeat on Charles at **Naseby**. Shortly afterwards the **Marquis of Montrose**, who was fighting for the King in Scotland, was utterly defeated at **Philiphaugh**. These blows were fatal to the royal cause.

Charles a Prisoner.—In despair Charles threw himself on the mercy of the Scottish army. He was surrendered in 1647 to the Parliament, principally composed of Presbyterians, and placed in confinement at Holmby House, near Northampton. A serious quarrel had sprung up between Parliament and the army, which was almost wholly Independent. Cromwell's Ironsides had fought for freedom of conscience, and were in no mind to submit to enforced Presbyterianism. They secured the King and removed him to Hampton Court. Soon after, Charles escaped to the Isle of Wight, and entered into correspondence with both army and Parliament, hoping to play one off against the other. Finally he agreed to maintain Presbyterianism in England for three years, and Parliament undertook to restore him to power. A Scottish Presbyterian army invaded England, but was routed by Fairfax (1648). The Independents then resorted to an act as unconstitutional as any of those of which Charles had been guilty: Colonel Pride was sent with soldiers to expel the Presbyterian members from the House. This arbitrary proceeding is called **'Pride's Purge.'** The Independent minority, numbering some fifty-three members, known as the **Rump**, assumed the powers of Parliament, and voted to appoint a High Court of Justice to try the King on the charge of treason. The Lords refused their consent; the so-styled Commons declared that their own authority was sufficient. The King was arraigned in Westminster Hall before the self-constituted court of 'justice.' **Bradshaw** was the president, and Cromwell was one of the judges. The trial was a farce; the judges had determined on the King's death before the proceedings opened. Charles, who bore himself with true kingly dignity and fortitude, was condemned.

Death.—Charles was beheaded in front of Whitehall, January 30, 1649.

Family.—**Charles**, afterwards Charles II.; **Mary**, who married the Prince of Orange; James, afterwards James II., and other children.

Character of Charles I.—Whilst Charles was far from being a wise King, he did not lack qualities that command our respect. His courage won the admiration of some of his bitterest enemies; his private life was blameless; he never failed in his earnest devotion to religion, or his love for his wife and children. It is not difficult to account for his failure as a king. Inheriting an intense belief in his own absolute power and his 'responsibility to God alone,' Charles had, moreover, to contend with an opposition, new in the history of the State, which he could not understand—the power of the representatives of the people. Failing to grasp the new spirit of the age, Charles tried to act independently of the aid or interference of this power, to whose rights he was blinded by egotism; and resistance drove him to the arbitrary misrule that brought his reign to wreck. Charles attempted to fight his enemies with political insincerity, and this, unfortunately for himself, proved a two-edged weapon.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE COMMONWEALTH, 1649-1660.

The Council of State.—On the day of Charles's execution, the 'Rump' appointed a Council of State to carry on the government, and England was declared a Commonwealth. The House of Lords was abolished, and what was practically a military despotism was instituted. This state of affairs was most hateful to the nation; the Independents were a minority in the kingdom, the execution of the King had destroyed all confidence in the new rulers, and men saw that the old tyranny had but been exchanged for a new tyranny under which they would enjoy as little freedom as before. The power of the self-elected government rested entirely on the terror inspired by Cromwell and his army.

Cromwell in Scotland and Ireland.—Immediately upon the execution of the King the Irish as a nation declared in favour of the Prince of Wales. Cromwell went to Ireland with an army. With merciless cruelty he stamped out the Royalist cause. **Drogheda** and **Wexford** were stormed and taken with a deluge of bloodshed; the inhabitants were massacred or sent as slaves to the plantations in Barbadoes. Some few took refuge in a tower; by Cromwell's orders the tower was fired and the fugitives burnt alive; neither age nor sex was spared Much

of the confiscated land was allotted to the Parliamentary soldiers. The Covenanters, who had viewed the severities of the Independents with horror, took up arms for Charles II. Cromwell marched against them and defeated the Scottish army under Leslie at **Dunbar**, 1650. Another army invaded England, but Cromwell followed and overtook it at **Worcester** (1651); the Royalist army was completely defeated, and Charles escaped, after many adventures, to the Continent. Cromwell, who much affected Scriptural allusion in his speech, referred to this victory as 'a crowning mercy.'

Dutch War.—The Dutch did a large trade in carrying the goods of other countries to England, but Parliament, fearing that their sympathy with the House of Stuart might take practical form, passed a foolish **Navigation Act**, whereby goods could only be brought into England by English vessels or the vessels belonging to the country sending the merchandise. War was declared in 1652. **Blake** was put in command of the English fleet, and, after a few reverses, he utterly defeated the Dutch, their admiral, **Van Tromp**, being killed. Peace was made in **1654**.

Expulsion of the Long Parliament.—State matters were not proceeding smoothly. The self-styled Parliament and the army were at loggerheads. The Commons wanted the army to be disbanded; the army demanded that Parliament should dissolve. Certainly the members were not ruling well; they had a habit of putting their own friends and relations in state offices, and, if they objected to bribes, it was only when those bribes were small. Cromwell cut the Gordian Knot by taking his soldiers to the House and forcibly expelled the members. England was now **governed by an army**. Cromwell and his officers then appointed a new council of state, chosen, not by popular representation, but by the Independents. This assembly was called in derision **Barebone's Parliament**, after a member of it who bore the uncanny name of Praise-God Barebone. As an administrative body it was a complete failure, and it soon resigned its powers to Cromwell, who became virtually King under the title of **Lord Protector**.

Cromwell's Protectorate.—Cromwell promised to rule in accordance with a scheme known as the **Instrument of Government**, which provided:

1. Parliament must be called every three years, and must sit for not less than five months.
2. Parliament must consist of 400 members for England, 30 for Scot-

land, and 30 for Ireland. Roman Catholics and Episcopalians were debarred from voting and from freedom of worship.

3. A standing army of 30,000 was to be maintained.

Cromwell's first Parliament was summoned in 1654. It did not approve of the Protector's absolute power, and after five months it was dissolved. Cromwell then followed Charles's example and endeavoured to rule without a Parliament; like Charles, his acts were often harsh and illegal, and these were aggravated by his desire to make all people Puritans. All pleasures and amusements, however innocent, fell under his ban; and the major-generals (whom the Protector appointed to keep order) and the 'commissioners' caused many harmless people to be punished. Cromwell had mastered the secret of maintaining his authority by terrorism; he never succeeded in winning his subjects' love. Knowing this, the Protector was haunted by fears of assassination. But he never relaxed his iron rule; Englishmen were fined and imprisoned in defiance of law; some even were sent over the sea as slaves to work on the plantations. Abroad Cromwell's administration was strong and successful. He joined France in a war with Spain, to secure for England undisturbed trade with America. The Spaniards encountered severe defeats, and amongst other achievements the English, in 1655, captured **Jamaica**. Three years later they obtained **Dunkirk**. The **Vaudois**, a Protestant people of the Alps, who were being persecuted by the Duke of Savoy, appealed to Cromwell for help; his bare threat was enough to stay the persecution. In 1656 Cromwell called his second Parliament. Nearly one hundred members were excluded, who were known to be politically opposed to him. The remainder pressed Cromwell to take the title of 'King.' This Cromwell wished, yet feared, to do; but in 1657 he created a new House of Peers. Differences, however, arose that led to the early dissolution of the Protector's second Parliament.

Death and Character of Cromwell.—In the autumn of 1658 an attack of low fever, brought on by his anxieties, the cares of government and domestic grief, ended fatally. Oliver Cromwell was a great man; it was the force of his own striking individuality that bore him from obscurity to the position he attained. How far his aims were selfish it is difficult to say; nor is it important, since his own interests coincided with those of England. Despotic and unconstitutional though his own rule was, none can dispute the great benefit he conferred on his country: he struck a blow at the selfishness of absolute sovereignty, and taught the people to know their power,

Abroad he made the name of England respected as it had never been respected before. By disposition he was unscrupulous and narrow-minded, stern even to cruelty, and fond of rough practical jokes; in appearance he was plain and awkward, and he usually wore a dirty dress; his speech was never free from the suspicion of cant. In domestic life he was a good husband and father.

From Cromwell's Death to the Restoration.—Cromwell's son, Richard, succeeded as Protector. But he was without his father's abilities or ambition, and he soon resigned his office (1659). The 'Rump' again was called; but it quarrelled with the army, and was once more dissolved, and the army selected a **Committee of Safety** to take its place. In this crisis of troubles **General Monk**, the commander of the soldiers in Scotland, took the decisive step of marching with his army to London and restoring the excluded members of the 'Long Parliament,' which dissolved itself, after deciding that a new free Parliament should be called. The **Convention Parliament**, as it was called, sat for the first time in April, 1660. Monk, who had been negotiating secretly with Charles, laid before Parliament a letter from the exile, who promised in the **Declaration of Breda**:

1. Pardon to all except those excluded by Parliament.
2. Liberty of conscience.
3. Parliamentary arbitration in the case of disputed estates.
4. Payment of arrears to the army.

Charles was welcomed with enthusiasm, and the Commonwealth was at an end.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

CHARLES II., 1660-1685.

Restoration.—Charles II. made his triumphal entry into London on May 29, 1660, amid the unbounded joy and enthusiasm of the populace. Everyone thought that the country's troubles were over. Some of those who shouted loudest came to the conclusion afterwards that their demonstrative exuberance had been premature.

The Convention Parliament. — An **Act of Indemnity** was passed, by which pardon was extended to all concerned in the civil war, except the principal regicides, ten of whom were executed; the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton and Bradshaw were

dragged from their graves and gibbeted at Tyburn. A statute was passed, settling an income of £1,200,000 on the King, and abolishing certain feudal dues which still survived. The army was disbanded, with the exception of five thousand guards; and on December 29, 1660, the 'Convention' was dissolved.

Ecclesiastical Measures.—In the Parliament of 1661 the Royalist party predominated, and under Hyde, now **Earl of Clarendon**, the persecution of the Dissenters began. Four Acts were passed, known as the **Clarendon Code**:

1. **The Corporation Act** (1661) required every member to take Sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England, and to declare his belief that to take arms against the King was unlawful.
2. **The Act of Uniformity** (1662), enacted that all clergymen must assent to everything in the Book of Common Prayer. Two thousand conscientious ministers were driven from their benefices by the enforcement of this Act.
3. **The Conventicle Act** (1664) forbade religious meetings of more than five persons (except in the case of a family), if they were not members of the Established Church. The penalty was imprisonment.
4. **The Five-Mile Act** (1665) forbade Dissenting ministers to come within five miles of any corporate town, unless when travelling. This Act also forbade them to keep schools.

These Acts were rigorously enforced, not altogether with the consent of the King, who wished for concessions which the Parliament would not allow. The Nonconformists, among whom were some of the noblest spirits of the time, notably John Bunyan, author of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' were subjected to cruel persecutions.

Marriage of Charles.—To the indignation of his subjects, who wished him to marry a Protestant princess, Charles, in 1662, married **Katherine, the Infanta of Portugal**, being tempted by her dowry. This consisted of £350,000, **Tangiers** in Africa, and **Bombay** in India. In the same year **Dunkirk** was sold to **Louis XIV.** of France, which was an equally unpopular act.

The Plague and Fire of London.—During the dry summer of 1665 a plague scourged London. It broke out in a filthy quarter of the city, and soon spread over the whole of the Metropolis. To this pestilence more than 100,000 people fell victims. A red cross was marked on the door of every house visited by the plague. The shops were shut, and grass grew between the stones of the strangely silent streets, their stillness only broken at night by the cry of the drivers of the dead-carts: 'Bring out your dead!' Winter caused the fury of the plague to abate. Next year London was almost laid in ashes by

a terrible fire, which broke out accidentally in a baker's shop, and consumed hundreds of streets composed of wooden houses. This fire afterwards proved a blessing in disguise, for it burnt out the plague, and a new London rose from the ashes, better-built and with wider, healthier streets.

The Dutch War.—War was declared against Holland in February, 1665, the principal cause being a long-standing commercial jealousy between this country and the United Dutch Provinces. During the first year an English fleet, under the King's brother **James**, gained a great victory. But the supplies voted for the war by Parliament had been squandered by the King and his profligate Court; the ships were left unrepaired, and the sailors did not receive their pay. In 1667 the Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway, destroyed Sheerness, and burnt the ships in the dockyard of Chatham. This dishonour was keenly felt by the nation, who remembered how Cromwell had made England's boast that she was mistress of the sea no less than truth. The **Treaty of Breda** put an end to hostilities on July 21, 1667. The anger of the nation was vented on the King's unpopular Minister **Clarendon**, who was impeached by the Commons, and fled from England.

The Secret Treaty of Dover.—After the fall of Clarendon, Charles took into his confidence five worthless statesmen; this Ministry was called the **Cabal**, from the initials of the statesmen's names—Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale. This Ministry formed a **Triple Alliance** between England, Holland, and Sweden, the object of which was to check Louis XIV. in his aggressive wars on the liberties of Europe. This alliance was very popular in England. But Charles was tempted into a disgraceful secret agreement, known as the **Treaty of Dover**, with Louis (1670). The terms were that Charles should, on the first opportunity, declare himself a Roman Catholic, and join Louis in his designs on Holland; in return, Louis pledged himself to pay Charles a large sum and a yearly pension, and help him with an army in event of an insurrection in England. To raise money for his scandalous schemes, Charles **closed the Exchequer**, and refused to repay the money advanced to the Government by London merchants, telling his creditors they must be content with the interest alone. The effect of this was a commercial crisis, trade was paralysed, and many great trading houses were involved in ruin. An English attack was made on the Dutch, but the combined invasion of the Netherlands by France and England was not very successful, and in 1674 peace was made between

England and Holland. Meanwhile **Charles**, in pursuance of his plot with Louis, had issued a **Declaration of Indulgence**, which was to allow freedom of worship—granted in favour, not of the Puritans, but of the Roman Catholics. An angry Parliament in the following year compelled Charles to drop the measure and assent to a **Test Act** (1673), which prevented any but members of the Church of England holding any office in the State. This drove James, Duke of York, from office, as well as several members of the 'Cabal.' This Ministry having been broken up, the **Earl of Danby** became Prime Minister, whose policy was to oppose Louis on the Continent and to check 'heretical' ideas at home. He brought about a match between **William of Orange** and **Mary**, eldest daughter of the Duke of York (1677).

'Oates' Plot.'—This marriage enraged Louis, and he revealed Danby's share in the 'Treaty of Dover' to the Commons. Danby was impeached and committed to the Tower. The knowledge of Charles's secret treaty with the leading Roman Catholic power filled the country with indignation, which was increased to fever-heat by the story of a man of infamous character, named **Titus Oates**, who swore that the Roman Catholic party in England and on the Continent were in league to murder the King, burn the capital, overthrow the Government, and restore Romanism. The story on the face of it was a cruel lie, and trumped-up by Oates solely in the hope of reward; but the country readily believed it, and hundreds of Catholics were executed. One result of this wave of public prejudice was the attempt in 1679 to exclude the Duke of York from succession. This **Exclusion Act** passed the Commons, but was lost in the Lords. This Parliament enacted in 1679 the important **Habeas Corpus Act**, which declared:

(1) That every prisoner must be brought before a judge within a limited time, and released on bail, except in case of treason and felony, till the time of trial. (2) That no one should be tried twice for the same offence. (3) That every person must undergo his trial the first term after his arrest. (4) No one was to be sent to a prison across the seas.

Charles's fourth Parliament met in 1680, and again the Exclusion Bill was brought in. A large majority voted in its favour in the Commons, but it was thrown out by the Lords. In connection with this Bill the party-terms of **Whig** and **Tory** came into use. The Whigs were opposed to the Court party and the succession of the Duke of York; the Tories were those who opposed the Exclusion Bill.

Rebellion in Scotland.—The Scottish Parliament had

obeyed Charles's wishes in overthrowing Presbyterianism in that country and establishing Episcopacy. The **Commission Courts** tried to crush the spirit of the Covenanters by intolerable cruelties. An outbreak ensued, and in 1680 Archbishop Sharp, of St. Andrew's, was killed by the insurrectionists. The rising was quelled with the utmost brutality by Charles's natural son, the **Duke of Monmouth**. The country was reduced to a state of sullen obedience.

Rye House Plot.—After the failure of the Exclusion Bill, some of the more violent spirits among the Whigs formed a plot to murder the King and the Duke of York, and place the illegitimate Duke of Monmouth on the throne (1683). But information given by one of the conspirators led to the discovery of the plot. The leaders were seized, and brought to trial. The resentment of the Tories led to a terrible act of injustice: **Lord William Russell** and **Algernon Sidney**, leading Whigs, were unjustly accused of complicity in the plot and died on the scaffold. Monmouth fled to Holland.

Death.—Charles died of apoplexy in 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. He left no lawful children.

Character of Charles II.—Charles was a man of considerable ability, but he hopelessly misused his talents. He was selfish, indolent, and extravagant; utterly regardless of public opinion, he cared only for the vicious pleasures to which his licentious court was abandoned. Few English Kings have been so completely wanting in moral character, or so dead to all sense of honour.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

JAMES II., 1685-1689.

Accession.—James, Duke of York, succeeded his brother. The Tories welcomed his accession; the Whigs accepted it in silence, but without opposition, for, though an avowed Catholic, James gave his kingly word that he would govern constitutionally, and uphold the English Church.

Insurrections of Monmouth and Argyle.—Monmouth and Argyle, who had taken refuge in Holland, thought that the dissatisfaction felt at James's religious opinions afforded the opportunity for a successful rising. It was arranged that simultaneously Argyle should kindle revolt in Scotland and Monmouth raise his standard in England. The Scottish insurrection was

almost at once crushed; Argyle was executed in Edinburgh. Monmouth landed in Dorset, and proclaimed that he had come as the champion of the Church of England. At first the rising seemed to promise success; he entered Taunton in triumph, where he caused himself to be proclaimed King. The approach of the royal troops, under Churchill, induced Monmouth to retreat to Bridgewater. The King's forces followed, and on July 6, 1685, the battle of **Sedgemoor** was fought. The issue proved how little chance any insurrection had, in the face of a standing army. The insurgents fought with resolute courage, but they were easily routed; Monmouth was sent to the scaffold.

The Bloody Assize.—Scenes of horrible butchery followed this battle. Colonel Kirke hanged the rebels by the dozen, without a pretence of trial. These judicial murders were continued by a still more infamous man, **Judge Jeffreys**, whose name has been handed down as a byword for brutality. This chartered butcher was sent to try the insurgents. About three hundred were hanged, nearly one thousand were sold as slaves to the West Indian plantations, others were flogged, pilloried, fined, imprisoned, or mutilated (1685). James was so delighted at this faithful service that he made Jeffreys Lord Chancellor.

Arbitrary Government of James.—Jeffreys' brutalities were a severe blow to the loyalty of the nation; but James seemed resolved to see how far he could go in provoking the temper of his subjects. James had two great objects in view: (i.) To make himself absolute; (ii.) to restore the Roman Catholic religion. The failure of Monmouth's rising confirmed him in his exaggerated opinion of his own power. He stung the Commons into a remonstrance by setting the Test Act at defiance and illegally giving commissions in the army to Catholics. In a fit of passion he prorogued Parliament. James then claimed the right to dispense with the laws if he liked. The servile judges, knowing that they would be turned out of office if they dissented, acknowledged that the King had the **Dispensing Power.** This was virtually a declaration that the King was responsible to no law. James then re-established the **Court of High Commission**, presided over by Jeffreys, to make the Church subservient to him. To overawe London, thirteen thousand soldiers were encamped on Hounslow Heath. James now began to fill the chief offices of Church and State with Roman Catholics; he suspended the Bishop of London, allowed Jesuits to open schools, and persuaded the Pope to send a papal legate to the English Court. The nation looked with alarm upon these measures; their anxiety was increased by the

change of attitude of Louis XIV. towards the French Protestants. He revoked the Edict of Nantes, whereby Henry IV. had granted toleration to those holding Protestant views. Thousands were driven into exile, and many took refuge in England, where their coming deepened the feeling against Romanism. In 1687 James made an attack upon the Universities. At Cambridge he deprived the Vice-Chancellor of office, for refusing to grant the degree of M.A. to a Benedictine monk without the usual oaths. At Oxford the Fellows of Magdalen were expelled, and their places filled by Catholics, because they declined to elect as president of the college a candidate put forward by the King.

The Trial of the Bishops.—In 1687 James tried to make the Nonconformists his allies by issuing a **Declaration of Indulgence**, which permitted liberty of conscience to all. The Nonconformists on the whole declined to avail themselves of this Indulgence; they were wise enough to foresee that James merely wished to use them as tools in his scheme of getting absolute power. In 1688 James ordered the clergy to read the Indulgence in their churches on two successive Sundays. Seven bishops, including the Primate, representative of the feeling of the clergy generally, presented a temperate petition to the King, begging that the mandate might be recalled. James committed them to the Tower. Before their trial came on a son was born to James. Hitherto one of the reasons of the apathy with which the nation had submitted to the King's unconstitutional measures had been that, in the ordinary course of events, James would soon be succeeded by his Protestant daughter, Mary. The unexpected birth of a son now pointed to a Catholic succession. A report was circulated and gained wide belief that the child was not the Queen's at all, but had been smuggled into the bedroom, in furtherance of a Jesuit plot. Whilst popular excitement was at its height the bishops were tried—for libel! This trial is one of the great landmarks in the history of the constitution, for the verdict practically amounted to a denial of the royal right to 'dispense' with the laws. The bishops were acquitted by the jury. London went mad with delight.

Invitation to William of Orange.—On the very night of the bishops' acquittal a letter, signed by seven of the leading Whigs and Tories, was secretly sent to **William**, Prince of Orange, begging him to come to England with an army and protect the nation's liberties. William landed some months later with an army at Torbay, in Devonshire. He published a 'Declaration,' in which he stated that he had come to defend the liberties of Church and State in England. In face of this

danger James lost his nerve, and made wild promises of concessions. It was too late. The national feeling was that he had forfeited his right to rule. Soon the King found the ranks of his adherents growing rapidly thinner. Lord Churchill (afterwards Duke of Marlborough), the Lieutenant-General, deserted to William; his example was followed by many of the other officers and the private soldiers of the King's army. Even James's daughter, Anne, wife of Prince George of Denmark, went over to the enemy's side with her husband. Soon James found that the nation, high and low alike, were with William, and that he was deserted. In despair he fled to France, and with his wife and son took refuge at the Court of Louis XIV.

The Interregnum.—In January, 1689, a 'Convention Parliament was summoned by the Prince of Orange, on the advice of an assembly of peers and leading citizens of London. This Parliament declared that, by his flight, James had abdicated the government, and that the throne was vacant. The members could not, however, agree upon the course to be adopted: some wanted to appoint William as Regent, leaving James nominally King; others wished the crown to be given to Mary. William himself finally decided the matter. He gave Parliament plainly to understand that unless he were appointed King he would return to Holland. Accordingly the Convention decided that the crown should be offered jointly to William and Mary; that after their deaths the children of Mary should succeed, or, if there were no such heirs, the Princess Anne and her children. In default of such issue, the crown was to be settled on the children of William by any later wife. A further clause enjoined that any sovereign embracing Romanism, or marrying a Roman Catholic, should be deprived of the throne. This enactment is known as the **Act of Settlement.** At the same time a **Declaration of Rights** was drawn up, asserting the ancient rights of the people, and marking the final victory of Parliament in its struggle with would-be absolute monarchs. After recounting the unconstitutional acts of James II., the 'Declaration' stated:

1. That it was illegal to levy money and to keep a standing army without the sanction of Parliament.
2. That it was illegal to assume the power of suspending or dispensing with the laws.
3. That the High Commission Court and all other similar courts were illegal.
4. That election of members of Parliament ought to be free; that freedom of speech in Parliament ought not to be questioned; and that Parliament ought to be held frequently.

5. That subjects had the right to petition the King.
6. That excessive fines ought not to be imposed nor unusual punishments inflicted.

Death.—James died at St. Germains in 1701.

Family.—By his first wife (Anne Hyde), **Mary** and **Anne**, who both came to the throne; by his second wife (Mary of Modena), **James Edward**, the 'Old Pretender.'

Character of James II.—James was a man of hard, forbidding manners and narrow sympathies; in religion he was a bigot. He had the cruelty, the petty meanness—in fact, all the qualities that make the tyrant; but he lacked the foresight, judgment, and power of statecraft to make his despotic rule successful.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

WILLIAM III. and MARY II. (William and Mary, 1689-1694; William alone, 1694-1702).

Accession.—Having agreed to abide by the 'Declaration of Rights,' which set a limit by law to the royal power, William and Mary were proclaimed King and Queen on February 13, 1689.

Opening Events.—A new oath of allegiance was imposed upon all holding offices in Church or State. Seven bishops and some three hundred of the clergy refused to take it; these men, who were called **Non-jurors**, were deprived of office. In May the **Toleration Act** was passed, granting freedom of worship to Protestant Nonconformists, but not allowing them to hold any office. The Declaration of Rights was confirmed in the **Bill of Rights**, in which the great principle was established that Parliament is the supreme power in the State. The clause referring to the illegality of a standing army was evaded. The mutiny of a Scottish regiment in March, 1689, showed the necessity of this institution. Accordingly a **Mutiny Act** was passed, providing for the maintenance of a standing army, and directing that soldiers should be punished by 'martial law.' As this Act had to be renewed annually, the danger to the country's liberties was lessened.

Affairs in Scotland.—Scotland and Ireland were less inclined to submit to William's peaceful accession. Graham of Claverhouse (Viscount Dundee), noted for his persecution of the Covenanters, raised the standard for James in the Highlands, and 3,000 men responded to his cry. With these Dundee

attacked Mackay, who had marched against him, at the pass of Killiecrankie, in Perthshire. The Highlanders were carrying all before them, when Dundee fell mortally wounded. With the death of Dundee ended the hopes of the Jacobite party in Scotland (July, 1689). The government of William was now secure. One of the King's first acts was to re-establish the Presbyterian religion. A general pardon was offered to all those clans who would take the oath of allegiance before January 1, 1692. Through an error, Macdonald of Glencoe was a few days late in taking the oath. A private feud led Dalrymple, the Scottish Secretary of State, into an act of shameful treachery. Pretending that Macdonald was a rebel, he ordered the extermination of Macdonald and all his clan, and a horrible massacre took place. It is a dark stain on William's character that he let the murderers escape punishment.

Rebellion in Ireland.—Except in Protestant Ulster, the Irish warmly espoused the cause of James, who, supported by Louis, came over in person to head the army raised for him by Tyrconnel, the Lord-Lieutenant. His first operation was to besiege Londonderry; but the inhabitants held out until English help came, and James had to abandon the siege. In the following year William himself came to Ireland, and defeated James in the **Battle of the Boyne** (1690). James lost heart, and fled to France. The insurrection was not finally suppressed, however, until October, 1691, when the last remnant of James's army capitulated at Limerick. The **Treaty of Limerick** ended the struggle, and made William's supremacy in Ireland unquestioned. The Irish Roman Catholics were treated with unjustifiable severity; every effort was made to stamp out their religion, and a million acres were confiscated to the Crown.

War with France.—The boundless ambition of Louis XIV. was a source of constant danger to the peace of Europe, and a league was formed to resist his encroachments among the Protestant States of the Continent. William induced the English Parliament to join in this coalition. In 1692 Louis collected a large army, with which he proposed to invade England and restore James to the throne. Louis was encouraged in his project by certain treasonable communications that passed between James and some of William's Ministers, among whom were Marlborough and Russell. These men were not anxious to see James restored, but they wished to be secure should the wheel of fortune bring this event to pass. Marlborough's correspondence fell into the hands of the King, and he was deprived

of his offices. The invading army never reached English shores; the allied Dutch and English fleets defeated the French in a naval engagement off **La Hogue**. This was the death-blow to James's hopes. The war by land was continued on the Continent for some years, but it was not marked by any decisive battles. William commanded in person, and, though he met with several reverses, he showed himself a match in generalship for his opponents, whom he could keep in check, though he could not win great victories. At last he tired Louis out. In 1697 the **Peace of Ryswick** ended the war, by the terms of which Louis consented to acknowledge William's title to the English throne. The expenses of the war had been a heavy drain upon the resources of England; in 1693 the Government raised money by a loan, and thus began the **National Debt**. This was done on the advice of Montague, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and money was borrowed—not as heretofore by the King, but by the nation—on the security of the Government. In 1694 another scheme was devised to meet the expenses of the war by a Scotsman, named William Paterson: a company agreed to lend £1,200,000 to the Government at eight per cent. interest, in return for permission to carry on the business of bankers. This led to the foundation of the **Bank of England**, upon the model of the Bank of Venice. After the Peace of Ryswick had been concluded, Parliament, against William's judgment, voted a reduction of the standing army; soon afterwards, greatly to the King's chagrin, his Dutch guards were dismissed. Three years before the peace the Queen had died (1694).

The Spanish Succession.—The unwisdom of reducing the army soon became apparent, for France was scheming to unite to herself in one vast empire the dominions of Spain:

Charles II. of Spain was childless and on his death-bed; there was every prospect of a great war among the three claimants to the succession: the Dauphin, the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, and the Archduke Charles of Austria; and William feared that the ambitious Louis would manage to turn that war to his own advantage. In 1698 he entered into a secret arrangement with Louis, known as the **First Partition Treaty**, which was to cede without war most of the Spanish Empire to the Electoral Prince. In 1699 the Prince of Bavaria died; accordingly a **Second Partition Treaty** was made to provide for this change in affairs, dividing the dominions between the two surviving claimants. This policy was favoured in England by the Whigs, and bitterly opposed by the Tories; the wisdom of it is plain. William and the Whig Ministers feared the overthrow of the balance of power, which might have been dangerous to the liberties of Europe, and would certainly have brought disaster on the trade of England and her colonies. Louis had no intention of abiding by the treaties. He induced Charles to leave the Spanish crown to Philip

of Anjou, the Dauphin's second son: when Charles died, in 1700, the French King at once claimed Spain for his grandson by the terms of the will. The Emperor Leopold took up arms to enforce the claims of his son, and the war of the Spanish succession broke out. The Dutch were greatly alarmed, and in September, 1701, William formed a **Grand Alliance** of England, Holland, and the Empire, against France. But the Tories were at that time in power in England; they refused to support William's policy, and deprecated any interference on the Continent; in a spirit of party bitterness they impeached the late Whig Ministers for their share in the partition treaties, which they declared to have been framed for the benefit of the Dutch. But soon their mood changed. James II. died; Louis, in defiance of the Treaty of Ryswick, acknowledged James's son King of England. The whole nation cried out for war.

Parliament was dissolved; the new Parliament, which was strongly Whig, voted supplies for an invasion of France.

Act of Settlement.—The death of the only son of the Princess Anne rendered a new settlement of the crown necessary. In 1701 an Act was passed ordaining that, after Anne, the succession should pass to the Protestant **Sophia**, wife of the Elector of Hanover (granddaughter of James I.) and her heirs. By this Act all the descendants of Charles I. were cut off from the succession. This Act also provided that judges should be appointed for life, unless convicted of some offence, at fixed salaries; they might, however, be removed on an address to the King by both Houses.

Death of William.—In the midst of the preparations for war, William died from the effects of a fall from horseback (February 21, 1702). He left no family.

Miscellaneous Events of the Reign:

A Triennial Bill was passed in 1694, limiting the duration of one Parliament to three years. Two years later a **Treason Act** was enacted, regulating the manner of trial, removing the disadvantages at which the accused had been formerly placed.

In 1695 the Scottish Parliament passed a Bill in favour of a project for colonizing the **Isthmus of Darien**, with a view to the establishment of a trade with America and India. This scheme was bitterly opposed by the East India Company, and resulted in disastrous failure. Hundreds in Scotland who had invested money in the scheme were reduced to beggary.

Liberty of the Press was established in 1695, when Parliament refused to renew the Licensing Act, which forbade unauthorised printing.

The **Coinage**, which had become greatly lessened in value from the fraud of clipping the unmilled edges of silver coins, was **renewed** in 1696.

In this reign **Cabinet Ministries** first took a leading part in the business of the State.

Character of William III.—William was a brave and able general, a prudent statesman, and a great King. He ruled well and constitutionally at a crisis in our national history when the difficulties of government—aggravated by the violence of party

quarrels—would have been too formidable for a man of less patience and decision of character. In manner he was silent and grave; by disposition he was honourable, and inclined to religious and political toleration.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

ANNE, 1702-1714.

Accession.—On William's death, **Anne**, second daughter of James II., was at once proclaimed Queen, in accordance with the Act of Settlement. Unlike the late King, Anne's sympathies were Tory; but the indecision of her character caused her to be ruled by the imperious Sarah Jennings, Marlborough's wife, the friend of her girlhood.

War of the Spanish Succession.—Marlborough commanded the allied English and Dutch troops, and for two years he was unable to do little more than defend the Netherlands. In 1704 he united his forces with those of the Emperor, under Prince Eugene of Savoy, and in the summer of that year the allied armies defeated the French and Bavarians under Marshal Tallard at **Blenheim**, a village in Bavaria; Tallard was taken prisoner. The importance of this victory cannot be overestimated; the fate of the allies depended on the issue, for, had Marlborough been defeated, Vienna would have been taken and the empire lost. This doubtless would have been followed by a French invasion of England. This success drove the French out of Germany. In the same year Admiral Rooke captured the Spanish fortress of **Gibraltar**—'the Gate of the Mediterranean'—which has remained in English hands ever since (1704). The tide of victory had turned from Louis; in 1706 Marlborough defeated the French at **Ramillies** (a village twenty-six miles south-east of Brussels), and after this decisive battle the States of Brabant declared for Charles, the Archduke. In 1708 the battle of **Oudenarde**, in the Netherlands, also resulted in severe defeat for the French. Louis now made overtures of peace, but he would not submit to the condition that his grandson must vacate the throne; and though France was almost ruined, one desperate final effort was made to retrieve her falling cause. Her hopes were crushed by Marlborough's victory at **Malplaquet** in 1709. The war still languished on; but political changes were taking place at home. In 1709 the Whig policy suddenly became unpopular. The country was tired of war. The Whig

party gave place to a Tory Ministry, headed by Harley and St. John, that directed all its thoughts towards peace. In 1713 the war ended in the **Peace of Utrecht**. In this treaty the cause which had led to the war was abandoned, for Philip still remained the King of Spain. But during those eleven years of fighting other considerations had entered the question. The power of France was worn out; she was no longer dangerous to Europe. The Archduke had become Emperor, and, had the Spanish dominions been added to his empire, he, much more than Philip, seemed likely to threaten the balance of power. The terms of the treaty were:

1. France acknowledged the Protestant Succession in England.
2. That the crowns of France and Spain should never be united.
3. That England should retain Gibraltar, Minorca, Newfoundland, the Hudson Bay Territory, and Nova Scotia.
4. That Sicily should be ceded to the Duke of Savoy; that Naples, Milan, Sardinia, and the Spanish Netherlands should be ceded to the Emperor; and that the fortifications of Dunkirk should be demolished.

Party Politics.—As in the previous reign, the strife between Whigs and Tories continued with increasing bitterness. Anne's first Parliament was Tory, and the Commons brought in a Bill against **Occasional Conformity**; this measure was directed against Dissenters who had received communion in accordance with the Test Act, in order to become eligible for public appointments, and had afterwards gone back to their own places of worship. This Bill was thrown out by the Lords; but was passed by the Tories in 1711. The Parliament of 1705 was principally Whig; Godolphin and Marlborough, who had been driven to the side of the Whigs by the foreign policy of the Tories, were included in the Cabinet. This Parliament passed an important Act in 1707, which brought about the **Union of England and Scotland**:

Since the accession of James I. both countries had been under one sovereign, though each retained its own government. A very bitter feeling had grown up between the two countries. The English entertained the insane idea that if freedom of trade were allowed with Scotland they would be ruined, and accordingly tried to fetter Scottish trade with heavy restrictions and duties upon their exports into England. In 1704 the Scottish Parliament, remembering the English opposition to the Darien scheme, and attributing the blame of its failure to England, passed an **Act of Security**, which declared that, unless Scotland enjoyed the same commercial privileges as England, Anne's successor should not rule over that country. The Whigs succeeded in accomplishing their desire for the union after much opposition, and in 1707 the two countries became one kingdom under one Parliament. Scotland was to retain her own laws and religion, and enjoy free trade with England. This measure has been productive of the greatest national good for both countries.

Tory Ascendancy.—In 1710 a clergyman, of extremely High Church principles, by name **Dr. Sacheverell**, preached and printed a sermon, stupidly bigoted against Dissenters and the Whig Ministry. The Government foolishly prosecuted him for sedition. The Tories lost no opportunity of stirring up sympathy for the preacher, and the populace began to regard Sacheverell as a martyr. Sacheverell was found guilty by a small majority; so unpopular was the verdict that at the new election the Tories were returned to power. Anne formed a Tory Ministry, the leading members being Harley, Earl of Oxford, and St. John, Lord Bolingbroke. Meanwhile the Marlboroughs had fallen into disgrace; the Duchess had tried the Queen's patience too far, and was dismissed from Court to make room for Abigail Hill (afterwards Mrs. Masham), a new favourite, who had been scheming against the influence of the Marlboroughs. The Duke himself, despite his brilliant victories, was accused on his return to England of peculation and deprived of office.

The Question of Succession.—Anne's health had begun to rapidly fail, and her Ministers' attention was drawn from their intolerant legislation against the Dissenters to the question of a successor. The Act of Settlement had decided in favour of the Electress Sophia and her heirs, but Bolingbroke and others were secretly corresponding with the son of James II. The plans of the Jacobites were frustrated, for on her death-bed Anne entrusted the conduct of affairs to the **Duke of Shrewsbury**, a staunch Hanoverian.

Death.—Apoplexy, induced by her agitation at a quarrel of her Ministers respecting the succession, caused Anne's death, on August 1, 1714. She survived all her children.

Miscellaneous Events of the Reign:

Queen Anne's Bounty—the name given to a fund for increasing the stipends of the poorer clergy, by setting aside 'First-fruits' and 'Tenths,' was established by the Queen in 1704.

'**The Daily Courant**,' the first daily newspaper, was published.

St. Paul's Cathedral was completed by **Wren**.

Character of Anne.—Anne was an amiable, indolent, and easily-influenced woman; her abilities were not very pronounced, and most of her opinions were borrowed ones. Politically she inclined to the Tories; in religion she was High Church. She was the model type of a homely, lovable woman, who knew how to win the nation's heart.

CHAPTER XL.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE UNDER THE STUARTS.

General Features of the Period:

1. The struggle of the people for freedom against the despotism of the King, which ended in the supremacy of Parliament and the establishment of a limited monarchy.
2. The passing of the great laws of English liberty, namely, the **Petition of Right**, the **Habeas Corpus Act**, and the **Bill of Rights**, which established the principle that the King holds his authority by the pleasure of the nation.
3. The development of Parliament and the first formation of 'Ministries.'
4. Religious struggles, which were bound up with party politics.
5. The rise of our Colonial Empire.
6. The impetus given to the fine arts; the early stages of science, ethics, and newspapers.

Trade, Commerce, etc.—The woollen manufacture continued to be the staple home industry; the silk, linen, and cotton manufactures were now introduced, and these industries received a great stimulus when the revocation of the Edict of Nantes caused thousands of weavers to take refuge in England. Not until the later part of this period was any serious attempt made to develop the mineral wealth of this country. Tin was obtained from Cornwall and copper from Wales, but only in small quantities; salt-rock was discovered in Cheshire, and became a leading export; at the close of this period the smelting of iron, which had been checked by the Parliamentary regulation against the use of wood-fuel, received a stimulus by the discovery of coal-fields. The internal trade was greatly developed by the improvement of the highroads after the erection of toll-gates (1663), and the establishment of a postal-system during the Protectorate. The chartered trading companies were in a flourishing condition; the more important of these were the 'East India Company,' the 'Hudson's Bay Company,' etc. New territories were being constantly acquired, and with the rapid growth of England's Colonial Empire emigration increased vastly widening our commercial interests. Although not more than half the country was under cultivation, four-fifths of the labouring classes were engaged in agriculture. Their wages were very small. Little attention was given to cattle-rearing. There were improvements in gardening, various vegetables now in common use, such as parsnips, peas, cauliflowers, etc., becoming more generally cultivated.

Home Life in England.—The furniture in the houses of the wealthier classes was generally of oak, often richly carved; carpets were as yet but little used, the floors being strewn with rushes. Much more taste was displayed than formerly in the decoration of the rooms and tables; the housewives prided themselves on their plate, on their homespun damask tablecloths, and their chests of linen. Little change is noticeable in the manner of living during this period; all through the winter months salt meat continued to be eaten by those who could afford meat at all. After the Restoration tea and coffee were introduced, but they were so expensive that few drank these beverages. Snuff-taking and smoking were widely indulged in.

Dress.—The Cavaliers affected what is known as the Vandyke dress, consisting of a silk or satin tunic with slashed sleeves, a richly-laced cloak, over which was an embroidered collar, long knickerbockers fringed with lace, and a wide-brimmed beaver hat adorned with a long plume, which hung over the long curled hair; the beard was trimmed to a point. The Puritans went to the other extreme of studied simplicity; their dress was plain and of sombre colour, and they wore their hair either closely cropped or else lank and straight. The dress of the ladies varied considerably; at one time the skirts were worn looped up, to show the elaborate under-clothing; at the close of the period the hoop-petticoat again came into vogue.

Amusements.—The amusements of bear-baiting, cock fighting, cards, dice, billiards, plays, quoits, bowls, and other sports were carried on until the time of the Commonwealth, and the times were disgraced by profligacy, licentiousness, drunkenness, and general excesses. The Puritans put their ban on all amusements, harmless and otherwise, and closed the playhouses. A reaction followed, and the old state of things reappeared with the Restoration in an intensified form. At the close of this period coffee-houses became favourite places of resort.

Leading Authors of the Period:

Poets and Dramatists.

Francis Beaumont (1586-1615) and **John Fletcher**, collaborator in numerous plays.

Ben Jonson (1574-1637), Poet-Laureate under James I., author of various plays, principally comedies; earliest play, 'Every Man in his Humour.'

Philip Massinger (1584-1640), dramatic author; best-known play, 'A New Way to Pay Old Debts.'

Robert Herrick (1591-1674), the best lyric poet of the seventeenth century.

John Milton (1608-1674), the great epic poet (Cromwell's Latin secretary), who, when blind and in bitter poverty, wrote 'Paradise Lost' and 'Paradise Regained,' also wrote sonnets, masques, and prose.

Samuel Butler (1612-1680), author of 'Hudibras,' a mock-heroic poem, written in satire of the Puritans and published after the Restoration.

John Dryden (1631-1700), dramatic author and satirical poet, made Poet-Laureate by Charles II. He wrote 'Absalom and Achitophel,' a powerful political satire. He also translated Virgil's 'Æneid' into English verse.

Prose-Writers.

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679), a distinguished philosopher, who wrote various treatises on the Science of Government.

Izaak Walton (1593-1683), a linen-draper of Cornhill, author of 'The Compleat Angler.'

Jeremy Taylor (1613-1667), Bishop of Down, a theological writer, author of 'Holy Living' and 'Holy Dying.'

Edward Hyde (1608-1674), Earl of Clarendon, author of the 'History of the Great Rebellion.'

Richard Baxter (1615-1691), one of the ejected Dissenting ministers in 1662, author of many theological writings, including 'The Saints' Everlasting Rest.'

John Bunyan (1628-1688), a tinker of Bedford, imprisoned for preaching, who wrote in prison the noble prose-allegory, 'The Pilgrim's Progress.'

Samuel Pepys (1632-1703), Secretary to the Admiralty, whose 'Diary' affords amusing glimpses of the life of the time.

John Locke (1632-1704), a philosophical writer, author of an 'Essay on Human Understanding.'

Gilbert Burnet (1643-1715), a Scotchman, made Bishop of Salisbury by William III.; principal work, 'History of the Reformation in England.'

Summary of Events in the Stuart Period.

The Gunpowder Plot	1605
Authorised Version of the Bible published	1611
Petition of Right	1628
National Covenant signed in Scotland	1638
The Grand Remonstrance	1641
Commencement of Civil War	1642
Execution of Charles I.	1649
Cromwell becomes Protector	1653
Death of Cromwell	1658
The Restoration	1660
The Habeas Corpus Act	1679
Revolution	1688
The Bill of Rights	1689
Foundation of the National Debt	1692
Act of Settlement	1701
Union of England and Scotland	1707
Treaty of Utrecht	1713

THE HANOVERIAN OR BRUNSWICK PERIOD:

From 1714 to the Present Time.

George I.	1714	**George IV.**	1820
George II.	1727	**William IV.**	1830
George III.	1760	**Victoria**	1837
Edward VII.	1901.		

GENEALOGY
OF THE
HOUSE OF HANOVER.

George I.
(great-grandson of James I.)

George II. — Sophia, m. King of Prussia. — Frederick the Great.

Frederick, Prince of Wales, d. 1751. — William, Duke of Cumberland.

George III.

George IV. — Princess Charlotte, d. 1817.

Frederick, Duke of York, d. 1827.

William IV.

Edward, Duke of Kent, d. 1820. — **Victoria**, m. Albert of Saxe-Coburg, d. 1901.

Adolphus, Duke of Cambridge. — Mary, m. the Prince of Teck.

Victoria, m. the Emperor Frederick of Germany, d. 1901.

Edward VII., m. Princess Alexandra of Denmark.

Duke of Edinburgh, d. 1900.

Duke of Connaught.

Leopold, d. 1884.

Four Daughters.

Albert Victor, Duke of Clarence, d. 1892.

George Frederick, Prince of Wales, m. Princess May of Teck.

Edward. Albert. Victoria. Henry.

CHAPTER XLI.

GEORGE I., 1714-1727.

Accession.—In accordance with the Act of Settlement, George, the Elector of Hanover, was proclaimed King.

Opening Acts of the Government.—George naturally inclined to the party to which he owed his accession. He dismissed the Tories from office and formed a Whig Ministry, the leaders of which were **Townshend**, **Stanhope**, and **Walpole**. The Whigs at once proceeded to impeach the leaders of the late Ministry—Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Ormonde—whom their political opponents accused of having studied French rather than English interests in the Treaty of Utrecht, and of plotting for the accession of the Pretender. Bolingbroke and Ormonde escaped to France; Oxford was sent to the Tower, where he remained for two years. This prosecution was the signal for further outbreaks of Tory dissatisfaction. The Government met these disturbances by passing the **Riot Act** (1715), by which measure any crowd of more than twelve persons refusing to disperse on command of a magistrate might be compelled to do so by the exercise of military force.

Jacobite Rebellions.—These signs of discontent in the country were a source of great encouragement to the Pretender —or, as he was known on the Continent, the **Chevalier de St. George**—who was preparing for a descent upon Scotland. His plans, however, were arrested by the death of his ally, Louis XIV., and the refusal of the Regent of France to lend assistance. Notwithstanding this blow to their hopes, Jacobite risings broke out in Scotland and England (1715). The Earl of Mar raised the standard of the Pretender in the Highlands, and round it rallied 10,000 clansmen; he met the Government forces under Argyle, and an indecisive battle was fought at **Sheriffmuir**, in Perthshire. On the same day some insurgents, headed by the Earl of Derwentwater, Forster, member for Northumberland, and some border lords, were surrounded at **Preston** by the royal forces and compelled to surrender. After the battle of Sheriffmuir the Pretender came in person to reanimate his supporters in the Highlands. The news that Argyle was advancing on Perth with reinforcements caused the rebel army to hastily retreat to Montrose. Courage was not one of the Pretender's strong points, and with Mar he deserted the army and fled to France. The prisoners taken at Preston were

tried for their share in the rebellion of '15. Derwentwater, Kenmuir, and others were executed, whilst more than a thousand were sent as slaves to North America.

The Septennial Act.—According to the Triennial Act of 1694 a new General Election should have taken place in 1717. The Government, however, feared to risk an election during the excited state of feeling into which the Jacobite risings had plunged the country. The Whigs, therefore, introduced a Bill to prolong the possible duration of Parliament to seven years, which measure was with some difficulty carried. This law still remains in force.

The Quadruple Alliance.—Spain was showing a disposition to break the Treaty of Utrecht, by which she had lost many of her dominions; her ambitious Minister, **Cardinal Alberoni**, was scheming to recover the Italian provinces. Accordingly an alliance was formed in 1718 between England, France, Austria, and Holland with the object of forcing Spain to abide by the terms of the treaty. England was not without a reason for thus helping Austria and France to protect their interests. A quarrel about some disputed duchies had made Charles XII. of Sweden bitterly hostile to George, and in 1717 Spain and that country had been intriguing for the restoration of the Stuarts to the English throne. That danger had passed away for the time with the death, in the beginning of 1718, of the Swedish King; but England had good cause to fear any extension of Spain's power. An English fleet was sent to the Mediterranean, and a naval battle took place off **Cape Passaro**, where Admiral Byng almost destroyed the Spanish fleet. Soon afterwards the Spanish Minister was dismissed from office and peace made.

Changes in the Ministry.—In 1717 the Ministry was broken up. Townshend and Stanhope seriously differed respecting England's policy of mixing in Continental quarrels, and the former, who favoured a peace policy, resigned office with Walpole; Stanhope now became head of the Government. Stanhope was a man of broad sympathies, and in 1718 he brought about the repeal of the Schism Act (which required all schoolmasters to conform to the Established Church) and the Act against 'occasional conformity,' both of which had been passed by Anne's Tory Parliament in 1711. Although a Whig, Walpole opposed the repeal of these Acts; he also opposed Stanhope's **Peerage Bill**, which aimed at preventing a repetition of Harley's action during the last reign, when that Minister created twelve new Peers to neutralise a majority in the Lords The Bill was thrown out by the Commons.

The South Sea Bubble.—In Anne's reign the South Sea Company was formed, which had proved a very successful commercial venture. In 1720 the directors of this company made a proposal to the Government, which was no less than an offer to take over the National Debt:

This debt was large, and had been incurred at a high rate of interest, six per cent.; the interest paid annually to the creditors by the Government was £3,180,000—a serious drain upon the Exchequer. The scheme of the directors was to induce the creditors to transfer their shares in the National Debt to the South Sea Company. The advantages of such an arrangement were glowingly described: the shareholders would receive much larger dividends; the Government would be required to pay a less rate of interest to the company, which would by this scheme become sole creditor; moreover, the company offered to give the Government a bonus of seven and a half millions. The company only asked in return certain exclusive trading privileges. Parliament jumped at the offer, and the public went mad over the scheme. Everyone was desperately eager to buy up the South Sea stock. Hundred-pound shares found purchasers at £1,000. Suddenly the reaction set in. All at once men's eyes became opened to the madness of this reckless speculation; the shares dropped more rapidly even than they had risen. Thousands became bankrupt. Walpole saved the credit of the nation. His plan was to ingraft nine millions of the stock into the Bank of England, an equal amount into the East India Company; Government was to give up the promised bonus, and the forfeited estates of the directors were to be applied to paying off the debt. Walpole, who had a genius for finance, managed by degrees to steer the nation through the troubled waters.

Walpole's Administration.—Robert Walpole now began his long career of power. He became Premier in 1721. He was an able statesman, not overburdened with scruples; the secret of his success was his ability to make men play his game by appealing to their self-interest; he thoroughly understood the frailties of human nature. His policy was consistently one of peace, and during his administration trade and commerce throve. Walpole had a knack, due, perhaps, to his greed for power, of quarrelling with his friends. When he became Prime Minister his chief colleagues were Carteret, Pulteney, and Townshend. In 1724 Walpole quarrelled with Carteret; in the following year he had a disagreement with Pulteney, which resulted in the latter forming a party, known as the Patriots, in opposition to the Minister. Acting in concert with Pulteney were Bolingbroke, who had been permitted to return to England, and the Prince of Wales, who was on anything but good terms with his father. The Patriots considered the Prince an invaluable ally, for they assumed that on his accession to the throne Walpole would be turned out of office.

Death.—George died suddenly at Osnaburgh in 1727.

Family.—By his wife Sophia, daughter of the Duke of Brunswick and Zell, his children were **George** and **Sophia.**

Character of George I.—When we take into consideration that George was more than fifty years old when he became King of this country, and could not speak a word of English, we cannot wonder that he took little interest in the kingdom, and left the entire management of it to his ministers. It was only natural that he should prefer the interests of his beloved Hanover to those of a country where his uncouth mannerisms were made the subject of ridicule. He was conscientious, and not without business abilities. His private life is stained by his cruel treatment of his wife.

CHAPTER XLII.

GEORGE II., 1727-1760.

Accession.—**George II.** succeeded at the age of forty-five.

Walpole's Administration.—The hope of Walpole's dismissal, shared by the Tories and the Opposition Whigs (the 'Patriots'), was soon dashed. The King was quite under the influence of his wife, **Caroline of Anspach**, a woman whose judgment matched her virtue; on her earnest advice George, much as he disliked Walpole, retained this Minister at the head of affairs. The Premier continued his policy of peace abroad and moderate reforms at home. Without compromising the honour of England, by his tactful diplomacy he compelled the Government of Spain, which was anxious for war, to conclude a peace at Seville in 1729. Four years later Walpole brought forward his **Excise Bill.**

This was a scheme to check the extensive smuggling that went on. Instead of levying customs on wine and tobacco on importation, Walpole proposed to admit these goods into the country practically free, and levy an excise-duty on them when ready to be sold. This measure roused furious opposition, by which the enemies of the Government were not slow to profit. The Patriots denounced the scheme as one that would ruin trade, and raise an army of excisemen on whose votes the Prime Minister might depend to carry every election.

Walpole knew that his scheme was a wise one, but his tact made him yield to the feeling of the people, and he withdrew the Bill (1733).

War with Spain.—In 1737 Walpole's ally, Queen Caroline, died; two years later the Minister was forced by the attitude

of the nation to declare war against Spain. These briefly were the events that led to the war:

In the question under dispute the English were in the wrong; the dispute was concerning the American trade. By the Treaty of Utrecht, England had the privilege of sending yearly one trading vessel to the Spanish colonies, a privilege which she consistently abused, for numerous merchantmen were constantly leaving this country laden with goods to be smuggled into the colonies. Not unnaturally, the Spaniards resented this; also, not unnaturally, their resentment took a practical form, and they sometimes inflicted a severe retaliation. The English only regarded the question from one point of view, and demanded war.

Hostilities opened with the capture of Porto Bello by Admiral Vernon; this brief success was followed by the failure of an attack on Carthagena; moreover, the climate did not suit the English, whose numbers were thinned by malaria. Commodore Anson was sent against the Spaniards with a squadron in 1740; he effected little except the capture of a Spanish galleon, and returned home nearly four years later with one ship, after having sailed round the world. Meanwhile the failure of the war was attributed to Walpole's mismanagement, and the feeling of the country was shown by the loss of this Minister's majority in the new Parliament of 1741. In February, 1742, Walpole resigned, and shortly afterwards Henry Pelham became Premier, who tried to continue the Whig policy of Walpole.

War of the Austrian Succession.—Before Walpole's resignation, England found herself at war on the Continent on account of Austria:

In 1740 Charles VI. of Austria died, having settled, by the terms of the agreement known as the '**Pragmatic Sanction**,' his hereditary dominions on his daughter, **Maria Theresa**. But on Charles's death, although most of the Continental Powers had guaranteed her succession, Bavaria, Prussia, and France made an attempt to seize Maria Theresa's dominions. England, remaining true to the agreement with Charles, took up arms for the Queen.

In 1743 the allied troops of Britain and Hanover, led in person by George, defeated the French at **Dettingen**. The next battle was less successful, when Marshal Saxe, the French General, defeated the English at **Fontenoy**, in Belgium, in 1745. The war dragged on for three years longer; but finally the **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle** ended hostilities (1748). All nations were to give up conquests won during the war, and Maria Theresa's right of succession was recognised.

The Rebellion of the 'Forty Five'—In 1745 another attempt was made by the Jacobites in favour of the exiled Stuarts. This was instigated by the French to hamper the English during the Continental war. **Charles Edward**, son of

the Old Pretender, landed in the Highlands, where his bright handsome face and winning manners soon gained for him many supporters among the chieftains of the clans. 'Bonnie Prince Charlie' marched south with his men, and defeated the royal troops at **Preston-Pans**, near Edinburgh. This success made Charles Edward master of Scotland; but in the meantime George returned to England with his army. Fear kept the English Jacobites from taking up arms, and though Prince Edward reached Derby he gained few adherents. He made a swift retreat to Scotland, pursued by the Duke of Cumberland. In April, 1746, the Duke met the rebels on **Culloden Moor**, near Inverness, and completely defeated them. No quarter was shown to the captured or the dying. On that red day Cumberland more than justified his title of 'Butcher.' Innocent and guilty—men, women, and children—were massacred to glut his savage vengeance. The star of the Stuarts had set in a sea of blood. Charles Edward escaped, and for five months lay in hiding in the Highlands, with a price of £30,000 on his head—a sum far too little to tempt the poorest Highlander to betray his Prince. At last the fugitive escaped to France. Many Jacobites, including not a few of high rank, were executed on Tower Hill for their part in the rebellion. The ill-starred Prince died in Italy forty years later.

Changes in the Ministry.—In 1744 Henry Pelham, who aimed at satisfying all parties, formed the 'Broad-bottom Ministry,' so called because it included men of the most opposite political opinions. About this time a young Whig was coming very much to the front in the person of **William Pitt**. Pitt had falsified Walpole's favourite saying that 'every man has his price,' by showing himself absolutely incorruptible; he had also expressed his opinion of Carteret's Hanoverian policy in terms as candid as they were displeasing to George, for Pitt bluntly insisted that it was not right to sacrifice British interests to those of that 'despicable electorate' of Hanover. In 1746 Pelham offered Pitt (the '**great commoner**') and another rising Whig, Henry Fox, office. Much against his will the King was compelled to consent. Eight years later Henry Pelham died. His place was taken by his brother, the Duke of Newcastle.

Opening of the Seven Years' War.—The relations between England and France were becoming very strained, principally through a question of colonial interests:

Both countries held great possessions in America and in India, and the fierce rivalry existing between the two races of colonists was reaching fever

heat. An attempt on the part of the French in North America to confine the English to the east of the Alleghany Mountains by building a chain of forts, had already provoked ineffectual resistance. Everything was tending to a great colonial struggle, when in 1756 the Seven Years' War broke out on the Continent. The immediate cause of this was an alliance formed by Austria, France, Russia, and Sweden, for the partition of Prussia. A common interest made England Prussia's ally.

Before any actual declaration of war, the French seized the English possession, Minorca. The blame of this loss was ascribed to Admiral Byng, who at the most had merely been guilty of an error of judgment. It is no credit to our national spirit that Byng was court-martialled on the charge of cowardice and shot. Voltaire's scoffing comment on this unjust sentence was that in England 'they kill an Admiral now and then as an encouragement to the others.' The loss of Minorca resulted in Ministerial changes. For the first time Pitt—though Newcastle was nominally Premier—was actually at the head of the Government. Pitt at once showed that he was, perhaps, the one man in England who could carry the war through successfully. Under his brilliant management, British arms on the Continent, in India, and in America became almost invincible.

The Campaign in America.—Pitt's first care was to replace the former incompetent officers, who owed their positions to influence with Newcastle, by more capable men. Newcastle was in the habit of choosing commanders like General Braddock, a brave, well-meaning person, who, when sent in 1755 to repel the French encroachments in the Ohio valley, blundered into an ambuscade, and with his men was almost cut to pieces. In 1759 Pitt sent a skilful young General, **James Wolfe**, with 8,000 men, with orders to take **Quebec**, the French capital of Canada. Quebec stands on the rugged cliff-heights overlooking the river St. Lawrence. The French General, Montcalm, occupied the town and its approaches with 12,000 men; his position seemed impregnable. But one dark night Wolfe and his men scaled the cliffs, and when the morning dawned the English army held the Heights of Abraham, beneath the very walls of Quebec. A desperate battle ensued, in which both the English and French Generals were mortally wounded. Wolfe lived long enough to hear of the victory of his men. Within a year **Canada was British Dominion.** The same year (1759) was signalised by an English victory over the French at **Minden**, in Germany, and the defeat of the French fleet in **Quiberon Bay** by Admiral Hawke.

Clive in India.—In India also the rivalry between English

and French broke out into open warfare. The leader of the French was Dupleix, Governor of Pondicherry, who aimed at the conquest of all India. He had hit upon the device of training the Sepoys (or natives) to fight in European fashion; but Dupleix was not long without a rival in the field. An English clerk, named **Robert Clive**, revealed unsuspected powers of generalship and genius far outshining the abilities of the French leader. In 1756, Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, prompted by the French, attacked and captured Calcutta. He shut up a hundred and forty-six of his prisoners in a room that measured eighteen feet by fifteen. Only twenty-three lived to stagger out of the '**Black Hole of Calcutta**' on the next morning. Clive went to avenge his countrymen; with 3,000 men he attacked the army of Surajah Dowlah, which numbered 50,000, at **Plassey**, and won a great victory (1757). Success followed success. By the beginning of 1760 the French had lost all their conquests in India, except Pondicherry. England's Indian Empire was an accomplished fact.

Death and Family.—In 1760 George II. died of heart disease. His eldest son, Frederick, had been dead nine years. George had in all eight children.

Miscellaneous Events:

This reign saw the rise of the **Methodists**. This sect was founded by two Church of England clergymen, **John Wesley** and **George Whitfield**, and has nobly survived the abuse and opposition it had to encounter.

The **Kalendar was reformed** during this reign. The 'new style' of reckoning had been suggested in 1582 by Pope Gregory XIII., and adopted by most European countries, but until 1752 England adhered to the reckoning of Julius Cæsar, who had allowed eleven minutes too much to the year's supposed duration. When the new style was adopted, England was eleven days wrong in her reckoning.

Character of George II.—George was brave and just; little else can be said to his credit, except that he usually had sufficient sense to leave the administration of English affairs to his Ministers. Like his father, he was devoted to his dear Hanover, and was always prepared to embroil England in European wars to further Hanoverian interests. He was hot-tempered and prone to prejudice; in money matters he was extremely parsimonious. As a King he was not much more popular than his father.

CHAPTER XLIII.

GEORGE III., 1760-1820.

Accession.—George III., eldest son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, had been born in England, and from his childhood had been surrounded by Tory influences; he came to the throne with a hatred of Whig Government, and the idea that he could rule more or less absolutely. England had cause to remember George in his *rôle* of despot.

End of the Seven Years' War.—As a first step towards breaking up the Whig Ministry, George obtained for his favourite, **Lord Bute**, a Tory, a seat in the Cabinet. Pitt was at that time negotiating for peace with France; but in 1761 he became aware of a secret alliance, the **Family Compact**, entered into by the Bourbon Kings of France, Spain, and Naples, the object of which was an attack on England. Pitt urged an immediate declaration of war against Spain, to gain the advantage of striking the first blow. Bute's opposition, however, carried the day. Pitt resigned office, and Bute became Premier. In the following year he found himself compelled to declare war against Spain. This lasted until 1763, when a peace was made at Paris, which brought the Seven Years' War to a close. This peace was justly denounced by Pitt as disgraceful, for Bute was so anxious to conclude it that he never stopped to consider British interests, and, without trying to get better terms, allowed England to sacrifice many of her conquests. At the end of the war England's gain of territory, including Canada, was seriously counterbalanced by the addition to the national debt of seventy-five millions. Popular indignation forced Bute to resign. He was succeeded by Grenville.

Wilkes.—In his speech that closed the Parliamentary session (March, 1763), the King declared the Peace of Paris to have been 'honourable and beneficial.' John Wilkes, the able, if dissolute, member for Aylesbury, in his paper, 'The North Briton,' denounced this assertion as a lie. George was furious; he ordered Wilkes to be arrested. The Ministers caused Wilkes to be sent to the Tower; but in this they went beyond their powers. Under the Habeas Corpus Act Wilkes had to be released. He at once brought an action against the Secretary of State for illegal detention. Wilkes won his case and obtained damages. This was not the only victory this popular hero (for as such he came to be regarded) won. In 1774 he was returned

to Parliament three times by the county of Middlesex, and three times the Commons refused to admit him. On his fourth election they had to give way.

Events which Led to the American War.—The blame of this war principally rests with the King, whose fatuous stubbornness transformed England's loyal subjects into bitter enemies. These were the causes of dispute:

Grenville proposed to meet some of the expenses of the Seven Years' War by taxation of the American colonists; the war had been partly undertaken in their defence against the French, and had left them masters of the situation. Moreover, other nations taxed their colonies, even when they, perhaps, did less for them. Accordingly, in 1765 a **Stamp Act** was passed by Grenville's suggestion, imposing the necessity on the colonists of using stamped paper for their law-business. The Americans resolutely refused to obey the Act. By the advice of Edmund Burke and Pitt this Act was repealed, for these men were wise enough to see that the colonists were fighting for a principle: they denied the right of a Parliament, **in which they were not represented,** to tax them. The colonists, however, made a generous proposal; they offered to pay a voluntary share in the expenses of the war. The Government would have lost no dignity in gracefully giving way, but the self-willed King flew into a passion: he would teach these rebellious subjects a lesson in obedience. With incredible folly, he ordered his Ministers to impose new taxes on the American imports. Pitt, now Lord Chatham, was too ill to lift his voice against this mad policy. The imposts were levied, amounting only to £40,000, and for this paltry sum (as Chatham had previously pointed out), England was risking the American trade, which was worth three millions. On his recovery, Chatham urged the repeal of these duties; he was dismissed by the King. Lord North succeeded him. The new Ministry withdrew all the duties except that on tea. In 1773 the English tea-ships entered Boston harbour; the townsmen requested that these might be sent back to England. This request was refused; immediately a body of men, disguised as Indians, went to the quay and emptied the tea into the harbour. The English Government passed two Acts: (i.) Dissolving the Assembly of Massachusetts, and placing the colony under the direct rule of England; and (ii.) shutting up the port of Boston. The colonists had no intention of submitting, and took up arms in defence of their principle.

The American War of Independence.—A Congress of the thirteen colonies of North America was held in 1774, and a 'Declaration of Right' was sent to the English King. It was disregarded. In the following year a skirmish took place at Lexington between some colonial riflemen and the British troops. War had begun. **George Washington** was appointed commander-in-chief of the American army. The first serious encounter took place at **Bunker's Hill**, near Boston. Washington was defeated, but the English lost 1,000 men. The Congress again tried without success to decide the matter peaceably. In 1776 the colonial forces compelled General Howe and the British

troops to evacuate Boston; this emboldened the Americans to repudiate English sovereignty, and in the '**Declaration of Independence**' proclaim the United States a republic. The campaign of 1777 opened well for the English with their victory at Brandywine, which threw Philadelphia into their hands; but this success was eclipsed by a disaster at **Saratoga**, where General Burgoyne and an English force of 6,000 men were compelled to capitulate. This British reverse induced the French to acknowledge the independence of the United States and send assistance; the example of France was afterwards followed by Spain and Holland. Thus in 1780 England found herself at war with three great European Powers. The alliance of the colonists with France in 1778 seriously alarmed many leading members of Parliament, and some suggested ending the war by recognising the independence of the colonies. Chatham left his bed of sickness to appear in the House of Lords for the last time. Whilst violently opposing the separation of England from her colonies, the great statesman fell down in a fit and died shortly afterwards. The war went on. Disasters attended British arms in the New World and in Europe. Gibraltar was blockaded by the Spanish; the attitude of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark became threatening; and, finally, in 1781, Lord Cornwallis and the English troops under him were driven to surrender at **Yorktown**, in Virginia. This practically terminated the war in America. But not until 1783, in which year England gained several successes on the Continent, was a formal peace made. The **Treaty of Versailles** was concluded between England, France, Spain, and Holland, by which the independence of the United States was acknowledged; a mutual restoration of conquests was arranged between England and France, whilst Minorca and the Floridas were ceded to Spain. This war swelled the national debt by one hundred millions. This treaty did not affect our possession of Canada.

The Ministry of the Younger Pitt.—In 1783 the Coalition Ministry of Fox and North was dismissed, and William Pitt, second son of Lord Chatham, at the age of twenty-four, became Prime Minister. Pitt was a Tory, and an equal favourite with King and people. Under Pitt's administration the prosperity of the country made rapid strides. One of his reforms was a **Commercial Treaty with France** (in 1786):

By this both countries agreed to lower the duties on imports to encourage trade. Hitherto the mistaken idea had prevailed that it was a disastrous policy for a nation to buy goods from other countries, for people imagined that by lessening the stock of money in the country they

were becoming poorer. Adam Smith's great book on political economy, the 'Wealth of Nations,' had lately been opening the eyes of thinking men to the fallacy that wealth is confined to money. This book pointed out the evil of hampering trade by restrictions, and advocated 'Free Trade.'

The increase of trade that followed Pitt's measure amply justified his application of Adam Smith's principle. Other causes aided the progress of commercial prosperity:

Canals began to be constructed, which simplified the question of circulating goods; the pioneer of them was James Brindley. Machinery was invented to supersede hand-work in cotton-spinning, the first spinning-frame being made by **Richard Arkwright** in 1768, and improved on by Crompton. **James Watt** made such improvements in the steam-engine that it took the place of water-power. Improvements were also made in iron-smelting and pottery manufacture, as well as in the draining and manuring of land.

The French Revolution.—Pitt was anxious for peace and the prosperity that peace brings; but in 1789 the cloud of war, which at first had been no bigger than a man's hand, began to darken the horizon of Europe. The Revolution in France broke out, which soon involved the Continent in turmoil. The outbreak had for long been slowly becoming inevitable; these were the events that led to it:

France was a sink of misgovernment; for centuries the burdens on the poor had been increasing. The abuses of feudalism, which had been swept away in this country, were rampant in France. The state of villenage, which we have seen existed in England in the fourteenth century, was still the condition of the lower classes of the French. The wealth of the country lay in the hands of the nobles and higher clergy. The French court was rotten to the core; it was dominated by vice, luxury, and extravagance; in scandalous contrast was the state of the peasant. His voice carried no weight in the administration; he was kept on the brink of destitution by ruinous taxation, from which the great landowners were exempt. On the lower classes fell the burden of the costly wars of Louis XIV. and his successor. These men sowed that others might reap, but their patience was tired out. The crisis had come.

France was becoming bankrupt; a meeting of the States-General (or Parliament) was held to face the question of this financial crisis. At once the 'Tiers Etat' (or Commons) assumed the reins of Government, and called themselves the National Assembly. A shrieking mob in Paris stormed the Bastille; the fire of revolt spread among the great hungry multitude who had suffered in silence so long—the lower classes rose and made themselves masters of France. Power was at last in their hands, but they knew not how to use it. 'Drunk with vengeance,' they yielded to their worst passions; all the old institutions were swept away, and France ran red with blood. Louis XVI. and the Queen, Marie Antoinette, were guillotined, and thousands

of the clergy and nobility shared their doom. France was declared a Republic.

War Declared between England and France.—At first the English had sympathised with the French in their wild Utopian dream of regenerating society on a basis of universal equality; but it soon became evident that the French Revolution was to be very different in its results to that of England in the seventeenth century. The French, having overthrown their own Government, now prepared to support any nation wishful to follow their example. Earnestly though Pitt desired peace, war became inevitable. In 1793 England, Spain, Austria, and Prussia armed against the Republic. The allies met with little success by land, and in 1794 were driven out of Flanders; by sea the English were more successful. In the following year Holland made an alliance with France, whose troops under a Corsican, **Napoleon Buonaparte**, were carrying all before them. England attacked the Dutch colonies, and captured the Cape of Good Hope. Spain joined the French, and in 1796 Napoleon's victories in Northern Italy deprived England of Austria's aid. By sea the English still remained triumphant, and in 1797 Admiral Jervis and Commodore Nelson defeated the Spanish fleet off **Cape St. Vincent**, and in the autumn of the same year the Dutch fleet was destroyed off **Camperdown** by Admiral Duncan. England had now to carry on the war alone, and the country was in a terrible state. Trade was checked, men were thrown out of work, the ruinous cost of the war doubled the price of provisions, discontent prevailed everywhere. Two mutinies broke out in the navy, and were with difficulty suppressed: in the same year (1797) the Bank of England suspended cash payments. The year 1798 was marked by a great victory. Napoleon went with an army and fleet to Egypt, with the intention of ultimately attacking the British possessions in India. Nelson followed in pursuit, and found the fleet anchored in Aboukir Bay. In the **Battle of the Nile** Nelson almost totally destroyed the French fleet. Napoleon then marched his army into Syria; his progress was stopped by his ineffectual attempt to take Acre, which was defended by Sidney Smith and some British sailors. After a siege of two months Napoleon returned to Egypt. There he received news that the European nations had taken fresh heart, and that a new alliance had been formed against the French. Napoleon left his army and returned to Europe. This army was finally defeated at Alexandria by Abercrombie in 1801.

A Temporary Peace.—Napoleon's first act was to set up a

new Government in France, with himself at the head of the State, under the title of 'First Consul.' He defeated the Austrians at the battle of **Marengo**, and that country was glad to conclude peace. In 1800 England's maritime law of seizing French goods, even when conveyed in the ships of other countries, led to the formation of an **Armed Neutrality** between Russia, Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden. As this league was inimical to England, Nelson, in 1801, bombarded Copenhagen and destroyed the Danish fleet. Proposals for peace followed the dissolution of the Armed Neutrality, and in 1802 the **Peace of Amiens** was concluded, whereby England surrendered all her conquests except Ceylon and Trinidad.

Union of England and Ireland.—In 1798 a rebellion broke out in Ireland, encouraged by the revolutions in France and America, which was not without good cause:

> The country was in a wretched condition, partly through unjust government, and partly through the monopoly of trade being confined to the English. Although the vast majority of Irish were Catholics, they were debarred from all share in the State, which was governed by the Protestants. But for the time being Catholics and Protestants forgot their differences, and joined, under the title of the '**United Irishmen**,' in an attempt to make Ireland a republic.

The rebellion was harshly suppressed, after the final defeat of the rebels at **Vinegar Hill**. Pitt thought that a union of the Parliaments of England and Ireland was the solution of a difficult problem, and would prove as successful as it had done in the case of Scotland. After much opposition an **Act of Union** was passed in 1800; Pitt wished to redress Catholic grievances at the same time, but George would not hear of any such fair arrangement, and Pitt resigned. He was succeeded by Addington.

The Battle of Trafalgar.—Napoleon availed himself of the Treaty of Amiens to establish a sound Government in France and prepare for further hostilities. Napoleon was dominated by a boundless lust for conquest. He entertained the dream of making Europe one kingdom under his own despotic rule. In 1803 he declared war, and seized 10,000 English travellers in France, whom he imprisoned. He then prepared for an invasion of England in 1804, in which year France, which had fought for rabid republicanism a decade ago, made him Emperor. Napoleon's plan was to lure the English fleet to the West Indies by a pretended attack on the colonies and seize the opportunity of invading England. His schemes were frustrated by a victory gained off **Cape Finisterre**, by Sir Robert Calder, over the French and Spanish fleets. Meanwhile

the diplomatic Pitt, again in power, had secured an alliance hostile to France between Russia, Austria, and Sweden. Nelson returned with his fleet from the West, and in October, 1805, he encountered the combined French and Spanish fleets off **Cape Trafalgar**. He attacked the enemy in two lines, and an action was fought which **destroyed the naval power of France**. In the fight the brave commander fell. On land Napoleon's arms were successful; and six weeks later he overthrew the combined army of Austria and Russia at **Austerlitz**. In the opening of the following year Pitt died, and was succeeded by Earl Grenville. In 1806 Napoleon issued the **Berlin Decrees**, forbidding all European nations to trade with England. England replied in the **Orders in Council**, that any nation who refused to trade with us would be considered an enemy, and forbidding the neutral States to have commercial dealings with France. As Napoleon proposed to use the Danish fleet, England bombarded Copenhagen, and brought its ships over to this country.

The Peninsular War.—Portugal refused to accept the Berlin Decrees, and in 1807 Napoleon sent troops to invade that country. In the following year he deposed the King of Spain, and placed his brother Joseph on the throne. As the Emperor's attempt to seize the Peninsula was evidently part of a plan for overthrowing the liberties of all Europe, the English sent **Sir Arthur Wellesley** to Portugal, where he defeated the French at **Vimiera** (1808). The **Convention of Cintra** prevented Wellesley from following up this victory; by the terms of this Convention Junot, the French general, evacuated Portugal.

[Wellesley had won a great reputation in India, where the native princes, instigated by the French, had tried to drive the British out of the country. Wellesley had distinguished himself at the storming of **Seringapatam**, where Tippoo Sahib, the rebel Rajah of Mysore, was slain (1799). In the battle of **Assaye** (1802) he had reduced to submission the warlike Mahratta chiefs, whose dominions lay between Delhi and the Deccan.]

Napoleon then led an army in person to the Peninsula, and captured Madrid. **Sir John Moore** was sent to Spain at the head of the British forces, but finding, contrary to expectation, that the Spaniards did not support him, he had to beat a retreat, pursued by a French army under Soult. At **Corunna** he faced the French and beat them back, but lost his life in the engagement (1809). Wellesley was reinstated in the command. He marched into Spain and defeated the French at **Talavera**; in recognition of this victory he was made **Viscount Wellington**. Meantime Napoleon had marched against the Austrians and defeated them at Wagram; at the same time an expedition was sent, under Chatham, to attack the French in Holland. Chatham

was a hopelessly incapable leader; he took his men to the low-lying island of **Walcheren**, where the fever-breeding climate swept off half the force (1809).

Abdication of Napoleon.—Slowly, but surely, Wellington beat back the French. In Wellington Napoleon had met his match. His masterly generalship triumphed in the face of countless difficulties. In 1812 he won the battle of **Salamanca**, after taking by storm the fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz. By his victory at **Vittoria** (1813) the French were driven across the Pyrenees, where they sustained another disastrous reverse, followed by yet another at **Orthez**. The shattered ranks of Soult's army made a last stand at **Toulouse** (April 10, 1814), where they were overthrown. During Wellington's campaign in the Peninsula, Napoleon had led an army into Russia; cold and famine drove him back. The line of his retreat was marked by thousands of dead and dying. After a crushing defeat at Leipsic, Napoleon's scattered stragglers fled to France, pursued to the gates of Paris by the allied armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, and a few days before Soult's final defeat Napoleon abdicated. He was compelled to withdraw to Elba, and the brother of the late King was raised to the throne of France as Louis XVIII. (1814).

War with the United States.—This war lasted from 1812 to 1814. The causes that led to it were:

1. The refusal of the American Government to allow the right claimed by England to search American ships for deserters from the navy.
2. The discontent of the Americans at the English blockade of the ports of France and her allies in consequence of the Berlin Decrees.

The war was carried on with varying success, during which Canada remained loyally faithful. The war was closed by the **Treaty of Ghent** (1814).

Waterloo.—In 1815 Napoleon escaped from Elba and returned to France. His old soldiers rallied with wild enthusiasm round the banner of the 'Little Corporal.' The English under Wellington and the Prussians under Blucher marched to the Netherlands to meet him. Napoleon's aim was to intercept the two armies. Wellington was awaiting the coming of Blucher at the village of **Waterloo**, when Napoleon attacked him. The English were outnumbered, but they kept the foe at bay for more than five hours. In the close of the afternoon fresh troops were seen advancing. At first Napoleon believed they were a French detachment under Grouchy; victory seemed assured. Then it was seen that the newcomers were Blucher's Prussians. The English with new heart broke from their squares and

charged the French. The victory of the allies was complete (June 18, 1815). Napoleon fled, only to surrender soon afterwards to the English—the 'nation of shopkeepers,' as he had sneeringly called them—who had broken his power. He was sent to the island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821. Napoleon was a man of genius, but he had used his power like a bully, and one cannot feel pity for his inglorious end.

Home Affairs.—The great part England had played in guarding the liberties of Europe had brought great distress on the country:

The cost of the war had crippled trade and beggared thousands. In 1815 the Government passed a **Corn Law,** forbidding the importation of foreign wheat until the price of English grain reached 80s. per quarter. It was anticipated that this would stimulate internal trade and relieve the agricultural distress; it was a mistaken policy, for it had the effect of making bread dear. Riots broke out, caused partly by the general depression and partly by the introduction of machinery into manufactures, which the ignorant imagined would lessen the number of hands required. In 1811 the first of these riots broke out. The rioters, who called themselves **Luddites,** destroyed in blind fury much of the machinery in the factories. The Government looked on with alarm, and took stringent measures to stop free speech amongst the lower classes. In Manchester a terrible outrage took place. In 1819 a working men's meeting was held to petition for Parliamentary reform. The magistrates ordered the leading speaker, Hunt, a fire-breathing agitator, to be arrested for inciting the people to riot. The soldiers, unable to reach Hunt for the mass of people, drew their swords, and slashed right and left. Six were killed. The Government foolishly supported the action of the magistrates, and passed the **Six Acts,** for the suppression of sedition and restriction of free speech This measure was a violation of our constitutional liberties. Whilst the discontent was at its height the King, who was insane and blind, died.

Miscellaneous Events of the Reign:

In 1780 the **Gordon Riots** broke out in consequence of the repealing of certain Roman Catholic disabilities.—Through the efforts of **Wilberforce** an Act was passed suppressing the British traffic in slaves.—The right of publishing the Parliamentary debates was established.—The **Royal Marriage Act** was passed, forbidding the descendants of George II. to marry under the age of twenty-five without the consent of the Sovereign.—**Warren Hastings** was impeached for mal-administration during his governorship of India. After a trial, protracted for seven years, he was acquitted.—**Vaccination** was introduced in 1796 by Dr. Jenner.—London was first lighted by gas in 1807.

Death.—George died in 1820, at the age of eighty-two.

Family.—By his wife, Charlotte of Mecklenburg Strelitz, George, his successor; **William,** afterwards William IV.; **Edward,** Duke of Kent, and others.

Character of George III.—George was not a good King; he was stubborn, prejudiced, and politically near-sighted. Much

of the credit given to him in some quarters was due to Pitt's wise administration. As far as conscientious intentions went, however, he was all that could be desired. In private life George was sincere, religious, and honourable; his homeliness and his love for country life gained for him the title 'Farmer George.' It is a fair comment on his intellectual capacity to quote his opinion that Shakespeare was 'wretched stuff!'

CHAPTER XLIV.

GEORGE IV., 1820-1830.

Accession.—George IV. succeeded his father; he had been practically King during the last nine years, under the title of Prince-Regent. Within a month of his accession, a plot to assassinate the Ministers during a Cabinet dinner was discovered. The conspirators, headed by one Thistlewood, held their meetings in Cato Street, in London. Thistlewood and four accomplices were hanged.

Trial of Queen Caroline.—In 1795 George had married his cousin, Caroline of Brunswick; she was a woman of coarse manners, and they soon separated. On his accession George induced the Ministry to bring a Bill into Parliament to permit him to divorce the Queen and marry again. She was charged with misconduct abroad; but the sympathy of the people was on her side, for George was a notorious profligate. Brougham defended Caroline, and the Bill was finally dropped. She was not, however, allowed to be present at her husband's coronation (July, 1821). In the same year she died broken-hearted.

Canning's Foreign Policy.—In 1822 George Canning became Foreign Secretary. He was a man of generous sympathies, and he at once reversed the foreign policy of his predecessor, Castlereagh, who had been the enemy of reform:

After the final defeat of Napoleon, Russia, Prussia and Austria had entered into a **Holy Alliance**, which was really a compact whereby those Powers pledged themselves to unite in repressing any democratic tendencies in Europe, likely to result in an attempt of the masses to free themselves from the tyranny of the higher classes. Though England did not join the alliance, it was supposed that Castlereagh favoured its aims. Canning was a man of broader mind; he let it be understood that he would not only not interfere with any nation struggling for liberty, but that he would use his powers to prevent other States from interfering. When the Spanish colonies, Mexico, Chili, and Peru, threw off their dependence on Spain, Canning induced the British Government to recognise them as independent, and warned the Holy Alliance that any nation

which assisted Spain to reconquer them would be treated as enemies of England. When France and Spain proposed to invade Portugal and overthrow the Constitution, Canning sent British troops at once to the defence of the Portuguese; Spain was not long in deciding upon the wisdom of leaving Portugal in peace.

In 1827 Canning became Premier. For six years the Greeks had been struggling against the Turkish yoke. Lord Byron, amongst other distinguished Englishmen, had aided Greece in her fight for independence. The Pasha of Egypt came to the help of Turkey. Canning, ever the friend of the weak, arranged a treaty between England, France, and Russia, to end the Turkish tyranny, and an allied fleet was sent to Greece. An unexpected battle in the **Bay of Navarino** ended in the destruction of the combined fleets of Turkey and Egypt. This brought the war to a close; and soon afterwards Greece became an independent State. Before the Battle of Navarino, however, Canning suddenly died (1827).

Reforms:

Robert Peel, who became Home Secretary in 1822, continued the work begun in the last reign by Sir Samuel Romilly—the reform of the criminal law. Death was the penalty for fully two hundred petty offences; for example, the law ordered that an offender convicted of stealing five shillings' worth of goods from a shop was to be hanged. The Commons had long been alive to the monstrosity of such enactments, but the Lords had resisted their repeal. Robert Peel's efforts secured the abolition of many of these outrageous laws. In 1829 Peel introduced the present **system of police.**

Huskisson, the President of the Board of Trade, brought in measures for diminishing the restrictions that hampered foreign and internal trade. He reduced the duties on the importation of foreign goods; he modified the enactments which compelled goods brought to England to be conveyed in English ships or the ships of the country sending the imports; he also repealed many of the repressive acts dealing with artisans. Thus stimulated, trade made giant progress. Huskisson attempted to bring about a repeal of the Corn Laws, but in this he was unsuccessful.

Lord John Russell brought in a motion for the relief of the Dissenters from their political disabilities, and in 1828 his Bill for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts was passed. Russell was the tried friend of Parliamentary Reform. At that time there were many 'rotten boroughs'; that is, some villages with scarcely an inhabitant had the power of sending members to Parliament, whilst many large towns were without that power. The manufacturing interest was quite unrepresented in the Commons. Russell was successful in getting several rotten boroughs disfranchised, but he failed in his attempt to have the seats transferred to the great manufacturing towns.

The Act of Catholic Emancipation was passed in 1829, during the premiership of the Duke of Wellington. Both Peel and Wellington were strongly prejudiced against Catholics, but they were wise enough to read the signs of the times and realise that the measure, unsuccessfully proposed by Pitt in 1801, must be passed, if only to preserve peace. The Catholics of County Clare had returned a member of their own faith, who was unable to sit in Parliament until he took the necessary oath. This

man was **Daniel O'Connell**, who had in 1823 started the Catholic Association. This body became so strong that in 1825 the Commons passed a Bill, supported by Canning, giving to Catholics their just rights. The Bill had been lost in the Lords, and an attempt made to crush the association. Had not O'Connell been allowed to take his seat a civil war would have resulted in Ireland; accordingly Wellington yielded, and most of the disabilities of the Catholics were removed.

Death.—George died in June, 1830, at the age of sixty-seven. He left no children.

Character of George IV.—'The first gentleman of Europe,' as George's parasites styled him, was a man of more than average abilities, to whose credit we cannot ascribe one good act or one reform of the reign.

CHAPTER XLV.

WILLIAM IV., 1830-1837.

Accession.—George was succeeded by his brother **William.** A month after William's accession, a second revolution took place in France. The people rebelled against the tyranny of their sovereign, Charles X., and deposed him in favour of his cousin, Louis Philippe. In the same year Belgium revolted from the rule of Holland, and became independent.

The Reform Bill.—The success of these revolutions made the mass of Englishmen determined more than ever upon the question of Reform; and the temperate way in which the French had enforced their wishes seemed to argue strongly that the judgment and good sense of the people entitled them to a far greater share in the government of the State. The Duke of Wellington, who was still at the head of the Ministry, declared however, that the Commons needed no reform. On Wellington's resignation the Whigs came into power under Lord Grey, and, on March 1, 1831, Lord John Russell introduced the **Reform Bill**; it was thrown out, and Parliament dissolved. In the new Parliament there was a great Whig majority, and, when the Bill was again brought in, it passed the Commons with flying colours. It was thrown out in the Lords. A tumult of fierce indignation broke out all through the country. Serious riots ensued in many of the large towns, especially in Bristol and Nottingham. Angry meetings were held to protest against the action of the Lords. In Birmingham an association was formed, which pledged itself to pay no taxes should the Bill be again rejected. The House of Lords saw that the nation was in earnest, and

that resistance might be dangerous; accordingly, when the Reform Bill was again brought in, about one hundred opposition peers absented themselves, and thereby enabled the Government to obtain a majority, and, in 1832, the Reform Bill became law. This introduced three important changes:

1. It disfranchised many small boroughs.
2. It empowered populous districts in counties and large towns to send members to Parliament.
3. It largely extended the franchise. All who owned houses to the value of 40s. a year, or paid an annual house-rent of £10, could vote for borough members; those owning land to the annual value of £10, or renting land to the annual value of £50, could vote for county members.

The first Reformed Parliament, comprised of 658 members, had a Whig majority of 314. The Whigs and Tories now began to speak of themselves as **Liberals** and **Conservatives**.

Acts of the Reformed Parliament.—We owe three important Acts to the Parliament called in 1833, after the passing of the Reform Bill:

The Abolition of Slavery in the British Colonies was brought about in 1833, mainly through the exertions of William Wilberforce and Lord Brougham. (The Act passed in 1807 had merely stopped the traffic in slaves, and had not affected those negroes already enslaved.) England paid a compensation of £20,000,000 to the slave-owners.

A Factory Act was passed, forbidding children under nine years of age to work in factories (1833). In the same year the Government made a grant of money to further elementary education amongst the masses.

A Reformed Poor Law came into operation in 1834. The law passed in Elizabeth's reign had produced a system which was open to many abuses; it encouraged idleness by furnishing relief to good-for-nothings who were too lazy to work. This practice was suppressed, and the system of parish relief remedied.

The Melbourne Administration.—In 1834 the question of the Reform of the Irish Church led to differences in the Ministry. Lord Grey resigned and was succeeded by Lord Melbourne. Within the year the King dismissed Melbourne, and Sir Robert Peel became Premier. There was, however, a Liberal majority in the Commons, in face of which Peel could make no headway. In 1835 Melbourne again came into office. The chief measures of this Ministry were:

1. **The Municipal Corporation Act** of 1835, which gave ratepayers the right to elect Town Councillors.
2. **The Tithe Commutation Act,** by which tithes had to be paid in money, and not in kind, the amount being regulated by the average price of corn during the seven preceding years (1836).
3. **The New Marriage Act,** permitting Dissenters to be married in their own chapels and by their own ministers.

The First Railway.—In 1830 the first railway was opened

between Liverpool and Manchester. This was due to the genius of a self-taught engineer, **George Stephenson**, who was the father of the Locomotive. The day of the trial trip was marked by the sad death of Mr. Huskisson, who was knocked down by an engine.

Death.—William died in June, 1837, at the age of seventy-one. His two children died in infancy.

Character of William IV.—William was a very different man to his brother. Without possessing the same abilities, he was not only far more industrious and conscientious, but he was also in favour of reforms. He was open, sincere, and fearless; his genial manner won him popularity from the first, and to the time of his death the nation's affection for him never diminished.

CHAPTER XLVI.

VICTORIA, 1837-1901.

Accession.—At the age of eighteen **Victoria**, daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, succeeded her uncle on the English throne; the kingdom of Hanover, however, now severed its connection with England, by virtue of the Salic law, which prohibits a female succession. In 1840 the Queen married her cousin, Albert, Prince of Saxe-Coburg. The beginning of the reign was marked by an insurrection in Lower Canada. The Canadians had long been dissatisfied with the home administration, and in 1837 an attempt was made to break connection with England. The rebellion was soon suppressed, reforms were made, and the two Canadas were united into one legislative State in 1841.

The Chartist Movement.—The working classes were, not without reason, very discontented. The Reform Bill, which had given the middle class votes, left the working man unrepresented in Parliament. This was manifestly unfair, for the working classes had many just grievances. The long Napoleonic wars had left the poor poorer still, prices had risen and wages remained low. The corn laws made bread very dear; moreover, the working hours were far too long, and little thought was paid to the health or comfort of the workers. Accordingly, great numbers of the lower classes drew up a **People's Charter**, in which they demanded the following reforms:

(1) Annual Parliaments. (2) Universal suffrage. (3) Vote by ballot. (4) Payment of members, to enable a poor man to go to Parliament.

(5) Abolition of the property qualification, which required all candidates for election to be owners of property. (6) Equal electoral districts.

The Chartist movement began in 1838, and went on for ten years. Unfortunately many worthless agitators sprang up who advised the Chartists to gain their wishes by force, and in 1839 some serious riots took place. Nevertheless, the majority of those concerned in the movement were men who, rash and mistaken perhaps in some of their views, had nevertheless the courage to suffer for opinions which they knew must ultimately triumph—the bettering of the condition of the masses. Since those days of repression, some of the demands for which many a Chartist was imprisoned have become part of our constitution.

Repeal of the Corn Laws.—Sir Robert Peel, the head of the Conservative party, was in power from 1841 to 1846. Peel made various reforms; he encouraged trade by lowering or taking off the duties on many imports, though he still entertained the strongest conviction of the unwisdom of taking off the duty on foreign corn. In 1844 a **Factory Act** was passed, which enacted that:

(1) The working hours of children under thirteen should be limited to six and a half hours a day. (2) Persons between thirteen and eighteen and female adults should not work more than twelve hours a day. (3) Inspectors should be appointed to enforce the carrying out of this Act.

A further law forbade the employment of females in mines. Meanwhile the **Anti-Corn Law League** had been formed (1839) by two Manchester men, **Richard Cobden** and **John Bright**, which set itself to make known the evils of 'Protection'—that is, the protection of farmers' interests at the sacrifice of the national good. Peel himself was half-convinced by the arguments of the free-traders, when a still more practical argument cropped up; this was the Irish famine of 1845. A blight fell upon the potato crop, and terrible destitution followed. At last Peel recognised that food must be cheapened, and in 1846 he carried a measure for the **Abolition of the Corn Laws**. The loss to the Exchequer was made up by the imposition of **Income Tax**. Like an honourable man, he acknowledged that the honour of this measure, and of the prosperity that followed it, was due to Richard Cobden.

Wars in the East.—The first wars of the present reign broke out in 1840. The attempt of China to suppress the British contraband trade in opium with her dominions brought about a war with England, which reflects no credit upon this country. China was beaten, and compelled to cede to us Hong-kong, as well as pay a heavy war-indemnity. In 1840 Lord

Palmerston effected an alliance with several European Powers to protect Turkey against Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt. The year 1842 was a disastrous one for England. Russia was adding to her conquests in Central Asia, and the fear seemed well founded that she had designs of adding the British possessions in the north-west of India to her dominions. The ruler of Afghanistan, a mountainous district lying between India and Persia, was friendly to Russia; accordingly, an English army was sent to invade Afghanistan and depose him in favour of a prince friendly to this country. This was done, but in 1841 a general Afghan rising forced the English to retreat from Cabul. It was in the depth of winter, and on its march to Jelalabad, ninety miles distant, the retreating army was massacred in the Khyber Pass by the merciless Afghans. Of the sixteen thousand men, one only, Dr. Brydon, lived to reach the city of refuge and tell the story of the disaster. Jelalabad held out against the Afghans until an army under General Pollock came to relieve it. The captives in Cabul were recovered, and the British troops withdrawn, in 1842. But troubles in India were by no means at an end. In 1843 a war broke out with the Ameers of Scinde, in consequence of an attack on the English residents in Hyderabad. Sir Charles Napier defeated them at Mecanee, and afterwards at Hyderabad. Scinde was then annexed to the British dominions. In the same year England was victorious in a brief war with the Mahrattas. North-east of Scinde, higher up the river Indus, lies the 'country of five rivers,' the Punjab, which was occupied by the Sikhs. In 1845 the Sikhs crossed the river Sutlej and invaded the British territory; but they were defeated in several battles by Sir Henry Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough. In 1848 Sikh outrages upon the English in Mooltan provoked further hostilities. After the two indecisive battles of Ramnuggur and Chillianwallah, Lord Gough broke the power of the Sikhs at Goojerat, and the Punjab was annexed to the British empire in India (1849).

Home Affairs.—In 1849, whilst Lord John Russell was Premier, two judicious measures were passed: (1) The Australian colonies were granted Parliamentary privileges. (2) The Navigation Laws were repealed. In 1850 Sir Robert Peel died. In the following year the great International Exhibition of Industry, due to a suggestion of the Prince Consort, was held in Hyde Park. It was thought that an exhibition of the industries of other countries would suggest new ideas to the manufacturers of this country; many even believed that when all nations were thus brought into friendly relations, the world would henceforth

see no more wars. Unfortunately, these hopes were not to be fulfilled. In the same year Louis Napoleon succeeded in overthrowing the Republic of France (which had followed the deposition of King Louis Philippe in 1848) by military terrorism, and in 1852 he made himself Emperor of the French.

The Crimean War.—For a considerable time Russia had been casting longing eyes on Constantinople; the conquest of that city would have made her all-powerful in the Black Sea. Other European nations viewed with alarm the Russian encroachments, and when, in 1854, the Czar Nicholas but half-veiled his designs upon Turkey, under the flimsy pretext of anxiety to save the Turkish Christian provinces from the Sultan's misgovernment, England and France allied to protect Turkey and preserve the balance of power. The Allied Army, under Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud, landed in the Crimean peninsula, and, after defeating the Russians on the heights of **Alma**, attacked the fortress of **Sebastopol**, which defended the harbour where the Russian navy was stationed. Sebastopol held out for twelve months, during which time the battles of **Balaclava** and **Inkermann** were won by the allies. Meanwhile winter set in. The war was disgracefully mismanaged, and for want of proper food and clothing many of our men died. So great was the indignation at home that Lord Aberdeen's Ministry resigned in January, 1855, and Lord Palmerston became the head of a Liberal Administration, which threw new life into the Crimean campaign. At last Sebastopol fell, and in 1856 a peace was concluded, by which Russia pledged herself to dismantle the fortifications of Sebastopol, and to keep no warships on the Black Sea. During the war, **Miss Florence Nightingale**, with noble courage, went to the Crimea to minister to the wounded.

The Indian Mutiny.—In 1857 the Sepoys rebelled against the British rule in India. These, amongst others, were the causes of the revolt:

(1) The recent annexation by Lord Dalhousie of **Oudh**. (2) A new rifle had been introduced into the army, the cartridges of which required greasing before use. The native princes circulated the belief that this grease was made from the fat of cows and pigs. The Hindus, who made up the bulk of the native army, regarded the cow as a sacred animal; other Sepoys were Mussulmans, who considered that to touch hog's fat defiled them.

The Mutiny began with a rising at Meerut, in Bengal, and an indiscriminate massacre of English men, women, and children. Still worse outrages took place at Cawnpore and Delhi, where horrible barbarities were instigated by Nana Sahib. A handful

of men in Lucknow held out till **Sir Henry Havelock** and **Sir James Outram** cut their way through the besiegers, and brought temporary relief to the exhausted garrison. Seven weeks later **Sir Colin Campbell** came to the rescue; he raised the siege of Lucknow, and in May of the following year had brought the revolt to an end. All through the rebellion the Sikhs and the Nepaulese remained unswervingly faithful. In 1858 the government of the country was transferred from the hands of the East India Company to the Queen, who, eighteen years later, was proclaimed '**Empress of India.**'

The Cotton Famine.—The Prince Consort died in 1861, amid universal grief. In the same year the secession of the Southern States of North America from the United States gave rise to a civil war, which lasted until 1865. This war had a disastrous effect upon the cotton-spinners of Lancashire, for almost all their raw material came from the Southern States, where it was produced by slave labour; as the Southern ports were blockaded the supply of cotton was stopped. The operatives bore their sufferings, which were very great, with courageous fortitude; for their relief the rest of the country subscribed three millions. England was almost drawn into the quarrel.

A cruiser, the **Alabama**, built in England for the Southern States, had been used with deadly effect against the Northern navy. The Northern States complained that this act was a breach of English neutrality. Good feeling, however, was restored in 1872 by **Mr. Gladstone's** Government, when compensation was paid to the amount of three millions.

Owing to the resolution of President Lincoln and General Grant, the North triumphed; and one good result of the conflict was the abolition of slavery in the Southern States. In the year that closed the war (1865) Lord Palmerston died.

The Second Reform Bill.—On Lord Palmerston's death, Earl Russell (formerly Lord John Russell) became Prime Minister. He advocated a second Reform Bill, and Mr. Gladstone introduced it into the House of Commons. It was too moderate a measure to be popular with the partisans of reform, and Liberals and Conservatives alike opposed it. The Ministry resigned, and the Conservatives came into power. The Premier was Lord Derby, but the guiding spirit of the Ministry was **Mr. Disraeli.** Meanwhile, the state of the country indicated that the working man meant to have reform, and that it would be dangerous to withhold it. Mr. Disraeli decided that the measure should come from the Conservatives, and brought in a Reform Bill which went much further than that of Mr. Gladstone. This measure, which was passed in 1867, conferred the electoral franchise upon:

(1) All householders in boroughs. (2) All lodgers paying an annual rent of not less than £10. (3) All persons rated at £12 for the county vote.

The Irish Question.—The condition of Ireland was most unsatisfactory :

In 1843 Daniel O'Connell raised an agitation in Ireland for a repeal of the Union. This was suppressed. Shortly afterwards a 'Young Ireland Party' was formed, the object of which was to accomplish the dissolution of the Union by violence. During the time of the potato famine England had generously sent over £10,000,000 to the distressed Irish ; but the disaffection grew, and it was fanned by scurrilous newspapers, the worst of which was the *United Irishman*. In 1848 a mild insurrection was essayed in Tipperary, promoted by Smith O'Brien, member for Limerick. The rising was easily quelled. O'Brien, whose courage was strictly limited to fiery speeches, distinguished himself by an early and hurried departure from the scene of action. In 1865 an organised league was formed, called the **Fenian Brotherhood**, whose aim was to establish an Irish Republic by force of arms and terrorism. The promoters of this league were American-Irish. Their power was checked by the action of the Government in suspending the Habeas Corpus Act. Several serious Fenian outbreaks occurred, however, in 1867, especially in Manchester and London. In the latter place part of Clerkenwell Prison was blown up.

Ireland was in the midst of these troubles when (in 1869) Mr. Gladstone, to calm the prevailing discontent, passed an Act for the disestablishment of the State Church in Ireland. This was a wise measure, for it was monstrous that a Roman Catholic country should be forced to support a Protestant Church. In 1870 Mr. Gladstone made a further just concession in passing the **Irish Land Act**, which rendered it compulsory upon a landlord to grant leases, and to pay compensation to an outgoing tenant for all non-exhausted improvements he might have made. The demand for **Home Rule**, however, still continued. In 1879 the **Land League** was formed, to gain further concessions for the Irish tenantry, one of the founders of the association being Mr. Parnell, member for County Meath, who was also at the head of the Home Rule agitation. Clinging to the skirts of a perfectly legitimate movement were a cowardly band of ruffians, known as '**Moonlighters**,' who committed terrible outrages on those who paid rent to the landlords, sometimes even resorting to murder. To meet the case a **Coercion Act** was passed in 1881 to check these acts of violence, and at the same time a **Land Bill** was passed, to ensure fairness of treatment for the Irish tenants. The Land League, however, advised tenants to pay no rent at all, and its leaders, including Mr. Parnell, were imprisoned ; they were released in the next year (1882). Shortly afterwards Lord Frederick Cavendish, the new Secretary for Ireland, was assassinated, together with a colleague, Mr. Burke, in broad daylight in Phœnix Park, Dublin. A **Prevention of**

Crimes Bill was passed—coupled with an **Arrears Bill** for the benefit of the poorer tenantry—but afforded no check to the lawlessness and violence of the country. In 1886 Mr. Gladstone brought in Bills for **Home Rule** and **Land Purchase**, to aid tenants to buy their holdings from the landlords. Many of the Liberals as well as the Conservatives opposed the measure; an appeal to the country resulted in a return to Parliament of 391 Unionists and 278 Gladstonians, and Mr. Gladstone resigned. An attempt was then made in Ireland to compel landlords to receive rent at the tenant's estimate, and the system of terrorism still went on. Later on order was again restored, but the Irish question still remains unsettled.

The Education Act.—In 1870 a measure, proposed by Mr. **Forster**, was passed compelling **Board Schools** to be established where necessary at the expense of the ratepayers of the district: by the Act parents were compelled to have their children educated. Two years later a **Ballot Act** was passed.

Foreign Wars:

In 1867 King Theodore of Abyssinia imprisoned certain British subjects. Sir Robert Napier led an army against Theodore and stormed his capital, **Magdala**. To prevent capture Theodore shot himself.

An expedition was sent under Sir Garnet Wolseley in 1873 to punish the Ashantee King, who had molested a native tribe in alliance with England. The Ashantee King was forced to surrender and pay a heavy indemnity, and his capital, **Coomassie**, was laid in ashes.

In consequence of a quarrel between the colony of Natal in South Africa and **Cetewayo**, the Zulu King, English forces were sent against the Zulus in 1878. The English met with a disastrous reverse at **Isandula** (1879), but the victory at **Ulundi** and the capture of Cetewayo brought the war to a close. In this war the gallant Prince Imperial of France (son of Napoleon III.), who had volunteered for the campaign, was killed.

In 1879-80 war was going on in Afghanistan, in consequence of attempted Russian encroachments. Cabul and Candahar were captured by British forces, and General Roberts won a decisive victory at **Argandab**.

To ensure the peace of her South African possessions, England, during the ministry of Lord Beaconsfield (Mr. Disraeli), had annexed the Transvaal, a Dutch settlement of 'Boers' (farmers), who proved aggressive neighbours. The Boers rose in rebellion in 1881, and, after some British reverses, Mr. Gladstone (unwisely, as many think) restored to them their independence.

The Egyptian Question.—From 1879 to 1882 the administration of Egypt was under the joint supervision of the Governments of Great Britain and France. The refusal of France to take her share in suppressing the revolt of Arabi Pacha (finally defeated by Sir Garnet Wolseley at **Tel-el-Kebir**, September 13, 1882) ended the joint protectorate, and left

British influence predominant in Egypt. In 1884 trouble broke out again. The gross abuses of the native Government had engendered a spirit of disaffection; the taxation was capricious and oppressive, justice a matter of barter; the country was on the eve of bankruptcy. The wild, slave-raiding Mahomedan Arabs of the Soudan, who had been brought under Egyptian rule in 1870, revolted under the leadership of a fanatic who proclaimed himself the **Mahdi**, or Messiah of the Mussulmans. A crushing defeat inflicted by the rebels on the Egyptian army, which was officered by British soldiers, helped the revolt to spread like wildfire; and the Khedive, advised by the British Government, relinquished his claims on the Equatorial Provinces.

Khartoum, capital of the province of the Soudan, was garrisoned by Egyptian troops under the command of European officers, and **General Gordon**, by direction of the British Government, led an expedition to relieve the garrison. In Khartoum he was hemmed in by swarms of Arabian fanatics. The Liberal Government delayed sending help, and in January, 1885, Khartoum fell, after a siege of 317 days. Gordon was killed in the massacre that followed. Lord Wolseley's force, tardily sent to Gordon's aid, inflicted several defeats on the Mahdi's Dervish troops; but our losses were severe, and finally the Government decided to withdraw from the Soudan, and the **frontier of Egypt** was fixed at the second cataract of the Nile. But British arms were still kept unceasingly busy checking the Dervishes, who made continual raids over the frontier, slave-hunting, plundering, destroying. In September, 1898, the Soudanese encountered a crushing defeat at **Omdurman**, at the hands of Sir Herbert (now Lord) Kitchener, and, although a desultory warfare was still carried on, long before the death, in action, of the Khalifa and his Emirs (November 24, 1899), Mahdism was overthrown, and the re-conquest of the Soudan an accomplished fact.

That the British occupation has been a blessing for Egypt cannot be denied. The years between 1885 and the close of the century may be said to mark the regeneration of the country. The Egyptian army has been reorganized and drilled into a formidable fighting machine; great reforms have been introduced; the new courts of justice have swept away the old corrupt system; taxation is impartial and light; the system of compulsory labour has been abolished. Vast works of irrigation are being carried on, and a railway is in course of construction from Khartoum to the Red Sea, affording employ-

ment to countless natives. Never before was the outlook for the people so hopeful.

The War in South Africa.—After the retirement of England from the Transvaal in 1881, the friction between British and Boer interests in South Africa grew more and more pronounced. The discovery of gold in the Transvaal in 1884 attracted countless immigrants. The Government of the country favoured this influx, but, disregarding the obligation of treaties, denied the newcomers the rights of representation or free speech, whilst making them bear three-fourths of the taxation. The first outcome of the growing resentment of the Outlanders (foreign residents) was a foolish, abortive 'raid,' engineered by Dr. Jameson, 1895. In consequence, the Outlanders were treated more harshly, and in 1899 they forwarded a petition to Her Majesty, setting forth their grievances. A conference was held in May, 1899, between the British High Commissioner, Sir Alfred Milner, and Mr. Kruger, the Transvaal President, at which the former demanded the franchise for the Outlanders. After protracted negotiations, the Boer Executive rejected the British demands, and on October 9 sent an **Ultimatum**, calling for the immediate withdrawal of all British forces. On October 11 the Boers (in alliance with the neighbouring republic, the Orange Free State) crossed the frontier in arms. This invasion of British territory constituted an act of war. It soon became evident that the Boers had been secretly preparing for war for years, and at first the British met with several disastrous reverses. Lord Roberts was sent out to command, and on June 5, 1900, he had swept the road clear to Pretoria, after capturing the Boer leader, Cronje. The President fled to Europe. On September 1 Lord Roberts issued a proclamation **annexing the Transvaal**, and later Lord Kitchener, taking up the command of the forces, terminated the war in 1902.

Chinese Crisis.—The close of the nineteenth century saw the Chinese capital, Pekin, occupied by the joint forces of the European Powers. Resentment of long-standing of various forms of foreign interference brought into existence a patriotic society known as the **Boxers**, whose aim was to keep the foreigner out of China. Early in 1900 the excesses of the Boxers led the European ambassadors in Pekin to make formal demand of the Chinese Government that the society should be suppressed. No satisfactory answer was obtained. Unchecked, the Boxers massacred missionaries and native Christians, and the Chinese troops began to make common cause with them in

these outrages, and in the wrecking of the railways built by foreigners. On June 20 the German minister was murdered in the streets of Pekin, and an attack made on the Legations, where the Europeans had taken refuge. For more than six weeks the Legations were under fire. At last, on August 13, 1900, an allied force of Europeans reached Pekin, stormed the gates, and raised the siege. Meanwhile, the Court fled to the interior. A Joint Note of the demands of the Powers was presented to the Chinese Government, imposing various punitive measures: the reform of diplomatic procedure, the establishment of guards for the Legations, the payment of an indemnity, and new commercial treaties. But conflicting interests and jealousies among the Powers themselves gave the Chinese Government the opportunity of protracting negotiations. Finally, the articles of the Note were agreed to. To meet the indemnity of £65,000,000, China agreed to issue bonds at four per cent., to be redeemed by 1934. In August, 1901, the allied troops evacuated Pekin. In January, 1902, a mutual agreement for joint action to ensure the protection of the commercial interests of the two countries in China and Korea was signed by **England and Japan.**

Jubilee of the Queen.—On June 21, 1887, Queen Victoria went in state with her children and grandchildren to Westminster Abbey to celebrate the fiftieth year of her reign. On that day, throughout the whole country, no proofs were wanting of the affection and loyalty with which the Queen was regarded. Ten years later the 'Diamond Jubilee' was celebrated, when civil and military representatives from every quarter of the 'Greater Britain' over seas took part in the State ceremony.

Death of the Queen.—On January 22, 1901, after a few days of illness, the Queen passed away.

The Queen's Family.—Victoria married Albert, Prince of Saxe-Coburg. Nine children sprang from the marriage: **Victoria,** married Frederick of Prussia, died 1901; **Albert Edward,** married the Princess Alexandra of Denmark in 1863; **Alice Maud Mary,** married the Prince of Hesse Darmstadt, died 1878; **Alfred,** Duke of Edinburgh, died 1900; **Helena,** married Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein; **Louise,** married the Marquis of Lorne; **Arthur,** Duke of Connaught; **Leopold,** Duke of Albany, died 1884; **Beatrice,** married Prince Henry of Battenberg.

The Queen's Influence.—The Queen came to the throne at a time when the Court had forfeited all respect by reason

of its lax morals, when drunkenness was one of the recognised virtues of society, when the national standard of morality was at its lowest ebb. England owes to Victoria the great debt that, from the first, she resolutely set her face against the laxity she found everywhere; and the example she set by her own life, her virtue and industry, her encouragement of all that is best in the national life, of all that made for a greater simplicity of living, has been of incalculable influence upon all classes of society. Victoria changed the morals of the Court; the indifference and lack of loyalty to the Crown that was almost universal when she came to the throne she transformed into the strongest personal affection on the part of her subjects. She pioneered 'new ideals of kingship'—the ideal of a Sovereign's respect for and obedience to the Constitution. Bismarck has paid to the Queen's abilities and her influence on European politics the tribute of describing her as 'the greatest statesman in Europe.'

Accession of the King.

On January 24, 1901, the late Queen's eldest son was proclaimed King under the title of **Edward VII.**, and opened Parliament in full state on February 14.

NOTES ON THE BRUNSWICK PERIOD.

The British Constitution.—Towards the end of the Stuart period the Constitution became a **Limited Monarchy**, the office of Sovereign being hereditary. The Sovereign may be either male or female, but must be Protestant, and may marry only a Protestant. The Constitution consists of the Sovereign, the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the Commons. Thus the Government is part monarchy, part oligarchy, part democracy.

National Progress.—The most striking feature in the history of the latter half of the Brunswick period is the marked revolution that has occurred in the social condition of the people. At the beginning of the nineteenth century England was face to face with bankruptcy; she was fighting for her very existence. Abroad, the troops who were meeting Napoleon's armies were half-starved, and often almost in rags. The harshest punishments were in vogue in the army; the 'cat' was administered for trivial offences; soldiers were hanged for looting on the march to supply their wants; it was

nobody's business to care how the common soldier was treated —and nobody did care. At home the country was in a miserable condition. The price of bread was ruinous; the long Napoleonic wars had checked exports, and over-production had ruined many mill-owners. With the closing of the mills, vast numbers of work-people were rendered destitute, and in many districts riots of the unemployed occurred. The franchise was restricted, and Parliament, whether Whig or Tory, spelt class government. In too many cases the laws were unmodified survivals of barbarism. Everything was taxed, from the necessaries of life to newspapers. Stringent laws fettered trade-unionism, and under severe penalties forbade the combination of workmen. The peace that followed the Napoleonic wars flooded the country with disbanded soldiers, who, turned adrift by a conveniently forgetful Government, helped to swell the ranks of the unemployed, and not infrequently the criminal classes. But dark as the outlook seemed, the spirit of the nation was undergoing a subtle change, and the early years of the century saw the first glimmerings of the **dawn of humanitarianism.** Mrs. Fry, a Quaker, was striking a blow for prison reform by her philanthropic labours in Newgate; the work begun by Romilly, the much-needed reform of the criminal law, found adherents to carry it on; slavery on British soil was abolished; Acts were passed regulating the labour of women and children in factories; the Corn Laws were repealed; the Catholics emancipated, and Dissenters' marriages legalized; the penny post took the place of the shilling post. These were some of the democratic ideals of liberty being slowly realized. In 1852 another step towards democracy was marked by the throwing open of the Indian Civil Service to public competition; the posts that hitherto had been the sinecures of aristocratic nominees were henceforward to open careers to talent. Less than twenty years later the purchase of commissions in the army was abolished. In 1875 Mr. Cross passed a measure removing the restrictions upon combination of labour, placing master and man on equal terms before the law. In the same year Samuel Plimsoll did his great service for the seaman of the merchant vessel in inducing Parliament to pass an Unseaworthy Ships Act. The legislation for compulsory education and the Franchise Act (1884) were further attacks upon class monopoly. With the spread of education, the artisan classes began to form clubs and interest themselves in politics; labour was represented in Parliament; the free library movement has opened the possibilities of self-culture to

thousands. Further legislation has done much, and is doing more, for healthy conditions of labour, has imposed legal responsibility on the employer for the well-being of those he employs, whilst compulsory cheap workmen's fares on the railways enable the artisan to live at a distance from his work. The London County Council and the Corporations of various large cities have of late years devoted much consideration to the question of the healthy housing of the poor, and gradually the old insanitary slums are passing out of existence. These are but a few of the many strides of humanity and progress during the nineteenth century.

Progress of Science: Steam Power.—The nineteenth century may be called the Age of Steam—a power which has revolutionized the world. The steam-engine was invented in the eighteenth century, improved by James Watt and others; but not until the nineteenth century did the use of steam become general as the motive-power of ships, railways, or looms. Until 1825 the stage-coach was the ordinary means of travel, which made journeys slow, expensive, and hazardous. The genius of George Stephenson, a self-taught engineer, introduced the railway locomotive (1825-1830). Experiments had already been made to apply steam-power to ships, and in 1812 the first steamer appeared on the Clyde.

Matches.—In the first years of the century the old troublesome tinder-box, with its flint and steel, was the method of getting light. In 1827 the first friction-match was brought out, and the improved phosphorus match followed in 1834.

Telegraphs.—In 1837 the electric telegraph was introduced by Cooke and Wheatstone, who utilized the chemical battery for producing electricity, which Volta discovered in 1800. The first marine cable was from Dover to Calais (1850). The latest development of telegraphy is the wireless telegraphy of Marconi—a system still in its infancy. Marconi's invention was first publicly tried in 1896, and much progress has been made. This system of sending long-distance messages on air-waves without wires has been used by the British forces in South Africa and by ships at sea. The idea is not a new one, experiments in ether telegraphy having been made in the eighties by more than one inventor.

Telephones.—The telephone is a more recent discovery than the telegraph. It was invented by Graham Bell in 1876, was improved on by Edison, and further improved by Hughes, whose carbon microphone carries a hundred miles or more, in a greatly magnified state, the smallest sound.

The Phonograph.—This instrument, for recording and repeating spoken words, was invented by Edison in 1877.

The Rise of the Colonial Empire.—The latter half of the Victorian period witnessed a remarkable change of attitude on the part of English politicians towards the colonies. During the first few decades of the century the idea of colonial expansion was distasteful to Whig and Tory alike; the colonies were chiefly regarded by the ordinary Briton as convenient and remote places where we could send our criminals, or as oranges to be sucked dry by those in high places. Not until 1854 had the colonies a separate State Office, the Minister of War acting also as Minister for the Colonies. It is true the Government made a few half-hearted attempts to colonize these British territories by sending out emigrants, and then forgetting about them; but it is to unofficial enterprise that the beginning of the colonial expansion of the Empire owes most—to the trading companies organized by such men as the Earl of Selkirk or Gibbon Wakefield, the latter being the organizer of a trading company that began the colonization of South Australia in 1836. While the trading companies were pushing the outposts of civilization to the far North-West of America, to Africa, Australia, and New Zealand, the Government looked on with apathy or indifference, if not with alarm. 'The jealousy of foreign Powers,' said Lord Glenelg in the forties, 'may be excited by the extension of British colonies. We have colonies enough. They are an expense to govern, and not of sufficient value to make it worth while to increase their number.' Some years earlier a Tory Committee protested against what they called the folly of wasting men and money on the colonial dependencies, and the chairman recommended the cutting adrift of Canada. The motherland could still make as much money out of Canada, he said. As late as 1865 a Parliamentary Committee advised the abandonment of West Africa.

Canada was the first of the colonies to receive more generous treatment than a bureaucratic administration had afforded. The discontent in Canada, culminating in a rising in the year of Queen Victoria's accession, caused the Home Government to despatch Lord Durham (an ardent Radical of remarkable ability) to investigate the situation. At this time Canada was divided into two provinces, the Upper and the Lower, the people of Lower Canada being chiefly of French descent. The Legislative Council was not elective, but consisted of nominees of the Crown, and the chief grievance of the people

was that responsible representative government was denied them. Lord Durham, in his report in 1839, advocated self-government for the Canadians, and though this was bitterly opposed by the Tory party, it was carried into effect. Lord Elgin, who became Governor-General a little later, was the means of carrying the reforms still further by his appeal to the mother-country to trust the Canadians with the utmost liberty of public life. In 1867 the Act was passed uniting the two provinces in the **Dominion**.

The evolution of a responsible representative Government in **Australia** was also developing. South Australia was granted self-government in 1857; the other colonies a few years later. Time has proved the accuracy of Lord Elgin's prediction of fifty years ago, that it was possible to give perfect freedom of internal administration to the colonies without any severing of the bonds that unite them to the mother-country. During the last thirty years the colonies have spontaneously shown their desire to take their part in the larger life of the Empire, to share its obligations and burdens. During the South African War voluntary offers of troops have been accepted from the various colonies.

On January 1, 1901, an Act came into force constituting the **Commonwealth of Australia**. By this Act the six colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, Tasmania, and Western Australia are federated under one Parliament, which comprises a House of Representatives and a Senate. The first Governor-General is Lord Hopetoun, representing the Crown. The Prince of Wales (then the Duke of Cornwall and York) visited Australia to open the first Parliament.

Leading Authors of the Period:

Poets.

Joseph Addison (1672-1719), a poet and essayist; famous for his essays in the *Spectator* and the *Tatler*.

Alexander Pope (1688-1744), a poet and prose-writer, author of the 'Dunciad,' a translation of Homer's 'Iliad,' etc.

Oliver Goldsmith (1728-1774), author of the 'Deserted Village'; also prose-writer. Great prose work, 'The Vicar of Wakefield.'

William Cowper (1731-1800), author of 'The Task.'

Robert Burns (1759-1796), Scotland's national poet.

William Wordsworth (1770-1850), author of 'The Excursion.'

Sir Walter Scott (1771-1832), a Scotch poet and novelist, author of 'Marmion,' the Waverley Novels, etc.

Samuel Coleridge (1772-1834), author of 'The Ancient Mariner.'

Thomas Moore (1779-1852), author of 'Irish Melodies.'

Lord Byron (1788-1824), author of 'Childe Harold.'
Percy B. Shelley (1792-1822), author of 'Queen Mab.'
Lord Tennyson (1810-1892), late Poet-Laureate, author of 'Idylls of the King.'
Robert Browning (1812-1891), author of 'The Ring and the Book.'
Algernon C. Swinburne (1837), author of 'Songs before Sunrise.'

Prose-Writers.

Daniel Defoe (1661-1731), author of 'Robinson Crusoe.'
Jonathan Swift (1667-1745), a satirist, author of 'Gulliver's Travels.'
Samuel Richardson (1689-1761), a novelist, author of 'Pamela.'
Joseph Butler (1692-1752), author of 'Analogy of Religion.'
Henry Fielding (1707-1754), a novelist, author of 'Tom Jones.'
Samuel Johnson (1709-1784), author of 'Lives of the Poets.'
David Hume (1711-1776), English historian.
Edward Gibbon (1737-1794), author of 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.'
Edmund Burke (1728-1797), author of 'Reflections on the French Revolution.'
William Paley (1743-1805); chief work, 'Natural Theology.'
Henry Hallam (1777-1859), author of 'Constitutional History.'
Thomas Carlyle (1795-1881), author of 'French Revolution,' etc.
Lord Macaulay (1800-1859), a famous historian, also author of poems.
William Thackeray (1811-1863), a novelist, who wrote 'Vanity Fair.'
Charles Dickens (1812-1870), England's most popular novelist; chief work, 'David Copperfield.'
John Stuart Mill (1806-1873), a great writer on political economy.
Charles Darwin (1809-1882), author of 'The Origin of Species,' 'The Descent of Man,' etc.

Among other later writers may be mentioned: **J. A. Froude, E. A. Freeman, T. H. Huxley, John Ruskin, Herbert Spencer,** etc.

Summary of Events under the Hanoverians.

First Jacobite Rebellion ...	1715	Reform Bill passed ...	1832
South Sea Bubble	1720	Bill passed for Abolition of Slavery	1833
Second Jacobite Rebellion	1745	Repeal of the Corn Laws ...	1846
Conquest of Canada ...	1760	Indian Mutiny	1857
Declaration of American Independence	1776	Second Reform Bill passed	1867
American Independence Recognised	1782	Elementary Education Act passed	1870
Outbreak of French Revolution	1789	Further Extension of the Franchise	1884
Union with Ireland ...	1800	Local Government Bill ...	1888
Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts ...	1828	Death of Mr. Gladstone ...	1898
Catholic Relief Bill passed	1829	Australian Commonwealth Act	1900

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OF
ELEMENTARY BOTANY

BY

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WITH ILLUSTRATIONS BY
W. L. BOYS-SMITH
LATE SCHOLAR OF GIRTON COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE, AND SCIENCE LECTURER AT CHELTENHAM LADIES' COLLEGE

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that have become developed for purposes of protection. Each bud has:

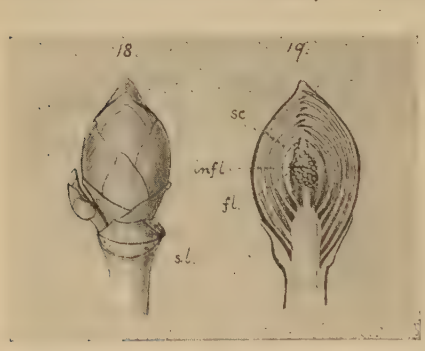
1. Four outer black scales which overlap, completely enclosing

2. The young leaves covered with down. These may be, not only the green foliage leaves, but also those which develop into the flower. Generally, one axillary bud develops into a branch, and the opposite bud into a flowering shoot.

3. The stem portion, which bears the scales and leaves just described.

Winter Buds of Horse-chestnut.

A twig of the Horse-chestnut shows even more plainly than that of the Ash the scar left by the fallen leaves, and the buds are particularly well protected from the winter cold and damp. The outer brown scales are covered with resin, so that it is particularly difficult to get them off without breaking them, unless the resin is first dissolved in methylated spirits. Underneath these brown scales are green covering scales; then come the young foliage leaves so entirely covered with down that they look quite white. Within these, in a terminal bud, are the flowers, looking rather pinker. All these are borne by the short stem of the bud.



FIGS. 18 AND 19.—WINTER BUD OF HORSE-CHESTNUT. 18. EXTERNAL VIEW. 19. LONGITUDINAL SECTION.

infl, inflorescence; *fl*, foliage leaves; *sl*, scar of attachment of last year's leaves; *sc*, brown covering scales.

Buds of Plane.

In a Plane, the buds are found inside the leaf-stalk, for at the base of each winter bud there is a little ridge, which extends all round the bud. This is the